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The Week

OUR Government's decision not to participate in the coming conference of the Allies at Paris seems, on the whole, to be a wise one. For the most part only military problems, with which we have no direct concern, are to be discussed there: the Salonica campaign, the submarine situation in the Mediterranean, another possible attack on Turkey, the use to which the new Greek levies are to be put. Neither our army nor navy officers have sufficient acquaintance with these matters to be of much assistance to the Allies in the conference. And, as we are not taking part in any of the Balkan or Turkish operations, our officers have little need to be present. On the other hand, if any final political decisions were to be reached, our participation in the conference would have seemed to be absolutely necessary and vital. But it is doubtful whether any such will be arrived at. Those larger questions of Italy's future position on the eastern shores of the Adriatic, and the fate of Bulgaria, must be left to the great peace conference. Perhaps it is just as well that none of our representatives is going to the Paris gathering. They might inadvertently commit us, or give the conferrees a mistaken impression that we were committed, to policies contrary to the spirit of the peace we are fighting for. In fact, as much should be left to the publicity of the final peace negotiations as possible, and as little as possible to the old diplomacy, working, in this provisional manner, behind closed doors.

THE censorship of outgoing cables, ordered by Washington, is a measure dictated by common-sense. It is admitted that news of military affairs may be transmitted by cablegram to some neutral European or South American country and from there be passed on to Germany. Exactly how the censorship will be made effective constitutes a more difficult question than its mere establishment. Apparently innocent messages may contain very damaging material; in fact, it is always the simplest cablegrams which the hardened censor suspects most. Will every sender and recipient of cable communications be visited and cross-examined? And will every such communication be paraphrased by the censor office in order to insure against a secret code? Any such thoroughgoing proceeding would naturally upset the country's external commerce tremendously; in fact, make exporting and importing extremely difficult. Yet without it the censorship would probably not serve its avowed purpose. In European countries the strict censorship not only of wires, but also of mails, has been inevitable because the enemy has constantly been almost within earshot; moreover, most of the countries at war have had little foreign commerce to worry about. Our case is essentially different and will require much more tactful handling.

MR. WILSON is best qualified to judge of the chances of permanent peace between Gen. Goethals and Mr. Denman, or, if that is impossible, to judge which of the two men the country can best spare. If the second consideration now confronts the President, and he is hesitating before the thankless task of passing personal judgment and creating personal resentments, the sooner he makes up his mind the better. Mr. Wilson must recognize that the war everywhere has been a terrible scrapper of men. In every country civilians and military leaders, not excluding Prime Ministers and Commanders-in-Chief, have had to go either because they could not cope with their task or because they could not get along with their associates. We shall not escape the searching test of this war if it goes on for many months. We may expect secretaries and chairmen and generals to be found wanting, and if the case against them is sound, they will have to make room for others. Mr. Wilson's duty in this respect is all the more patent because, unlike European Prime Ministers and Chancellors, he himself cannot go out of office if the war does not move satisfactorily. It is only his subordinates that can be reached, and only through him can they be reached. To this process of punishments and rewards the President may as well steel himself at once.

IF it were not a relief to have the Food Bill out of the Senate on almost any terms, the country might well greet the new measure in bad temper. Only memory of the blunders and obstacles which seemed to threaten its very life makes us glad to have it with all its imperfections on its head. The bill is weeks later than it should be—the first Administration measure was ready early in May, the House had passed an excellent measure in good time in June, and there were many who hoped that July 1 would see food control an actuality. Now, its House sponsors hope only that the final measure will be ready in time to enable Mr. Hoover to begin work early in August. The Senate knew from the beginning that it would have to pass some kind of bill. Only a handful of Senators were really opposed to the principles of comprehensive control over food and fuels which the Administration insisted upon. Probably few have had any real confidence that they were improving the House bill by thoroughly rewriting it. Because the Senate has lacked leadership, in some ways the bill represents rather its collective unwisdom than wisdom; it is largely a patched-up result of compromises and half-retrieved mistakes. At no time has the Senate seen its goal clearly, and only by indirection has it arrived at one. But in essentials the bill will serve, especially to go to conference, where it can be improved.

IT is easier to tell how the bill differs from the Lever measure passed by the House than how it resembles it. It includes only food and fuel in its scope; the Lever provision granting the Food Administration control over "necessaries" was voted down, as were separate proposals for control over textiles, iron, steel, copper, fertilizers, and twine. In place of the House provision requiring the Executive to stop the use of food materials in making all alcoholic beverages, it contains a provision forbidding their use in distilled liquors and directing the President to buy distilled liquors in bond. It gives the President as great

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power over the production of coal as does the House bill—he may regulate the entire industry and take over the mines if necessary. The authority granted by the House to take over factories generally is limited by the Senate to take over factories for war work. The licensing section has been entirely revised, and in place of the broad power conferred by the House upon the Food Administration to license all food dealers, such power is extended over only certain designated persons—wheat-elevator owners, cold-storage and packing-house owners, farm-implement manufacturers, coal operators, and dealers in designated necessaries. Farmers, gardeners, and coöperative farm associations are exempted, and it will be hard to reach retail dealers. The provisions against hoarding are essentially unchanged, and the appropriation granted is even increased by ten millions for the purchase of fertilizers.

SO quietly that one is in danger of not hearing it comes the news that another State has filled its quota for the regular army. This time it is the President's. New Jersey thus aligns herself with California, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Wyoming. She will doubtless complete the parallel by continuing to add to her recruits regardless of the fact that she has done her assigned share. There is something impressive in the way in which this part of our military activities has declined either to be speeded up or to slacken. A hurrah spirit might be proper for Liberty Bonds and the Red Cross, but even a Presidential proclamation did not accelerate this movement to an undignified rate of progress. Like a glacier, expressions of impatience had no effect upon it, but if it could not be hastened, neither has it shown signs of halting. With the inevitableness of fate, it has gone on, steadily adding increment to increment, as if it had appropriated from somewhere in Europe the ominous motto, *Ohne Hast, ohne Rast.*

IF anybody besides hopeless partisans really needs an explanation of why the training camps for the National Guard were located in the South, he has it in Secretary Baker's quiet statement. The central factor in the decision was the shortage of tonnage, which made it likely that the troops could not all be sent to France before winter. Obviously, it was to be desired that they should be in a place where out-of-door training might be continued as late as possible, and obviously again, that pointed to the South. A different course would probably have meant the building of two sets of cantonments, one in the North, to be abandoned when cold weather set in, and a second in the South. A minor reason was lack of money appropriated for construction of cantonments, which forced the authorities to plan for only half of the thirty-two cantonments originally contemplated. This obstacle, one would suppose, could have been overcome, but the impossibility of completing more than the smaller number of cantonments, even by September 1, made the consideration of climate decisive. It is proper that Secretary Baker should give this explanation to the public, but it is not cheering that it should have been called out by charges of sectional favoritism on the part of the War Department. After all, the South is in the Union.

THE creation at Petrograd of a Committee of Public Safety with unlimited powers under the presidency of Kerensky shows where the greatest peril to Russia's new-won liberties lies to-day. Grave though conditions are on the southwestern front, with one army in apparent process of dissolution and the other armies compelled to give way by the breaking of the front, that is a contingency which has threatened at various times since the revolution. We have had to contemplate the possibility of army disorganization opening the way for a German march on Petrograd, but always there was the feeling that even if the seat of the revolutionary Government had to be removed to Moscow the struggle against the German armies and against the danger of monarchist reaction would go on, if only the elements that had brought about the revolution held together. If the spirit of mutiny does not spread to other sections of the battle-line, if the army under Kornilov remains faithful and the army which is reported to be attacking strongly in the region of Vilna and Smorgon does its part, Russia may escape with a military disaster which would stop short of being irreparable. There is even the possibility that the German offensive, after the first days of panic and insubordination, may bring about that consolidation of national sentiment which the German leaders have feared hitherto.

THE real danger to Russia is now at Petrograd. Out of the confusion of reports it is possible to make out thus much: that during the last fortnight the union of revolutionary elements has broken up. Not only is there strife among the Socialists, but there is a split between the moderate Socialists and the non-Socialist elements. The process which began with the departure of Milyukov from the Cabinet was virtually completed by the resignation last week of the remaining non-Socialist Ministers, and signalized by the replacement of Prince Lvov, who as long as possible held to his post as a symbol of ultimate national unity. If Russia is to be saved there must be a reunion of the moderate Socialists and the liberal elements. It is not from the latter that the peril of counter-revolution arises. Unhappy though these men may be under the new turn of affairs, it is incomprehensible that they should lend themselves to any scheme for the restoration of the old and evil régime. It is the Socialist fanatics whom the Provisional Government now stigmatizes as counter-revolutionists, the men who, as events have shown, do not hesitate to play with the ruin of Russia and the revolution. The mistake of the moderate Socialists has been that they temporized with the rioters at Petrograd to the extent of appealing to moral suasion while yielding to them in the elimination of the surviving non-Socialist members of the Provisional Government. This grievous error must be undone, the men of Lvov's type, who helped to make the revolution, must be recalled if the Government is to make way against the anarchists on the one hand and the German armies on the other.

THE declaration of the Austrian Premier, Dr. von Seydler, before the Constitution Committee of the Reichsrat, that there exists an "unbreakable unity between Austria and her allies" should be read in the light of the fierce denunciation of that unity by the ex-Minister of Justice, Dr. Prazak, a few days ago before the full House, prior to its hasty adjournment. Dr. von Seydler is the head of a Ministry whose days were numbered the moment it was born; Dr. Prazak and his Czech colleagues are the men who

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remain, and whose support Emperor Charles has been ardently courting. In fact, it was in order to conciliate them that he granted full amnesty to the Czech "traitors," some of whom had originally been sentenced to death. The Emperor cannot now form a real Cabinet with or without the Czechs, just as he is helpless with or without the Poles, who are rebellious for the first time in fifty years. What the stop-gap Premier says is merely the official attempt to disguise for the time being the real meaning of a situation which every man in Austria-Hungary knows to be untenable. Meanwhile, the silence of the Hungarian Diet, which holds the key to the fate of the monarchy, is significant.

AT first sight the replacement of Sir Edward Carson as head of the British Admiralty by a man who has made his reputation as an expert in transportation and a general efficiency engineer would not seem to meet the criticisms directed against the Admiralty for its lack of aggressiveness. If the policy of "keeping the ring" is to give way to the policy of seeking out the German fleet or the German naval bases, the new First Lord of the Admiralty should have been a fighting man. But it must be recalled that critics of naval procedure have emphasized not only the want of aggressiveness in the Admiralty, but also the unsatisfactory organization of the department which has saddled fighting men with administrative duties and so lamed their energies. The partial reorganization of the Admiralty some time ago was a concession to such criticism. The advent of Sir Eric Geddes would be a further step in this direction. He has been till now controller to the Admiralty in charge of naval construction. The question of naval construction may to-day be one of the paramount problems. If aggressive tactics against the German harbors are to be adopted it means that the building of Dreadnoughts and cruisers must be suspended in favor of those "amphibious" war craft of which Mr. Arthur Pollen speaks, shallow-draught monitors presumably, and other floating gun-platforms.

TO this explanation the return of Winston Churchill to office as Minister of Munitions lends itself. Whatever may have been his earlier beliefs regarding caution as the essence of naval policy, he is now hot for bold tactics. We may suppose, therefore, that as Minister of Munitions it will fall to him to build the new weapons—monitor guns, aeroplane guns, aerial ammunition—which would enter into an attack upon the German harbors and fleet from the water and the air. Of munitions for land warfare the Allies would seem to have a full supply. We have been told that the battles around Arras and south of Ypres have drawn upon the stock of British shells to the extent of only 7 per cent. Dr. Addison's withdrawal as Minister of Munitions cannot therefore be regarded as a confession of failure. It is rather a case of having done his work so well as to give room for an experiment in a different field. For that the buoyant Churchill temperament is fitted. It may seem odd that on the morrow of Austen Chamberlain's retirement because of the failure in Mesopotamia, there should be a return to power of the man who, officially, was responsible for the other great failure in the Dardanelles. The difference, however, is that Mesopotamia was a tragedy of incompetence and sloth, while the Dardanelles plan showed vision and initiative, but went to pieces because of human fallibility.

AMONG the figures thrown up in the conscription controversy in Canada are some which measure the efforts of the various colonies. Up to February 1 of this year Canada had enlisted 391,000 men. Australia had enlisted 350,000 from her population of about 5,000,000; New Zealand, 75,000 from her population of 1,100,000; South Africa, 70,000 from a recruiting population of about 1,250,000; and Newfoundland, 3,300 from a population of 250,000. In the number of men sent overseas Australia had then actually taken the lead, having dispatched 300,000, with five divisions at the front. Canada had sent 285,000 men and had four divisions at the front; New Zealand, with one division fighting, had sent 65,000 men, and South Africa had 60,000 men at the front, of which one brigade was in Europe. Canada's effort since February 1 may have surpassed Australia's, for a month ago it was announced that over 421,000 men had enlisted. But it is said that both Australia and New Zealand have contributed more men for naval service than Canada, the above figures representing only land forces. As for financial effort, Australia and Canada on that date had fairly matched each other, having spent about a half-billion each, while New Zealand and South Africa had spent between $115,000,000 and $130,000,000 each. Comparisons among colonies are odious; the essential fact is that to-day they have enlisted not less than 1,000,000 men for the Empire's defence, and have not less than three-quarters of a million at the front.

THE President's decision to remove the embargo on the sale of arms to the Mexican Government is at the same time acknowledgment of a present satisfactory state of affairs and an act of foresight. By letting Carranza have the munitions he needs for the suppression of the remnants of brigandage in his country, we confess to our confidence in the good intentions of the Mexican Government and lay the ghost of the wild suspicions that these munitions might be turned against ourselves. We show at the same time our indifference to the crazy stories about German plots in Mexico, about hostile embargoes on the oil the Allies need for their navies, and the whole tribe of feeble survivors out of the rumor factories that used to be so active at El Paso. We work at the same time towards a more thorough understanding, which may be of profit to us possibly in the war, and certainly will be of prime importance in the world rearrangement after the war.

PORTO RICO'S large majority for prohibition seems to have been expected by the people, in spite of the difficulty of educating a Latin-American electorate to an Anglo-Saxon approach to the question. The chief argument of the liquor forces was that the Treasury could not afford the sacrifice of the excise revenue, placed by them at $2,000,000. The Prohibitionists reckoned it at only $1,200,000, and declared that much of the loss could be made up by higher taxes upon tobacco and other luxuries, and that the people would be left much better able to support the Government when relieved of the annual drain of $8,000,000 by the liquor industry. To lose between one and a quarter and two million dollars in revenue in an island where the whole cost of government in 1914 was little over $11,000,000 is no light matter. But Porto Rico, with her swarming population facing many grave industrial and social problems, believed that she would be better off without the drink trade.

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"The Ways of Liberty"

IT was a Frenchman, M. Lavisse, if we remember, who a few years ago used a good phrase at a time of great turbulence and delay and confusion in the French Chamber. He said that such things were, of course, to be regretted, but that they had to be put up with as a part of the "mœurs de la liberté." Tyrannies, oligarchies, autocracies may move with swift vigor—until they stumble into the pit—and with every appearance of national unanimity; but democracies are not built in that way. They pull and haul and hesitate and flounder and complain and criticise and get the people's machine forward only with a great deal of creaking. That this was the customary process in times of peace, all Americans knew, and resigned themselves to it with as good grace as they could muster. But they fancied that war would change all that. Grumblers and fault-finders were to disappear. Congress and people were to be animated by a common purpose, and everything would march swiftly. Well, we can see now that all this was not to be. Men of experience predicted from the first that a democracy at war could not lightly cast off the ingrained habits of peace, and now the event proves it to be so. To the surprise and the pain of a large part of the public and the press, Congress has in some matters been leisurely or dawdling, in others fiercely quarrelsome, while a storm of criticism against the Administration has been raging—criticism about the draft, about contracts, about ships, and about nearly everything that has been done or has failed to be done.

There is no use in getting angry over this. Nor is there any reason why it should make anybody despondent. What we are observing is simply the American democracy in action. The ways of some Senators are certainly not pleasing; the ways of some newspapers are positively disgusting; the ways of some critics are such as to make one wish to examine their bumps; but they are, after all, the ways of freemen. At a meeting of commercial bodies, last week, the desire was expressed that the Government would furnish the country "less shindies and more ships." It is a vain hope. We may get the ships—we are confident that we shall—but not without the shindies.

Impatience with the slow and uncertain methods of a self-governing people has just been bitterly expressed by some in connection with the right of appeal to the Supreme Court granted to the convicted anarchists, Alexander Berkman and Emma Goldman. It was thought we had got rid of them for the term of their sentence. They had had a fair trial, and it was felt that the judge in the lower court had not been too severe in bundling them off to prison without giving them even a day's respite. But now their attorney has obtained from Judge Brandeis permission to appeal to the Supreme Court, for final decision on the merits of the case, and meanwhile they may be out on bail. Now, this is precisely the same kind of legal privilege given heretofore to murderers, to bank-wreckers, to eminently respectable criminals; but here are anarchists temporarily released from jail, and many are aghast. One high police official of New York said, with complete gravity, that "anarchy had ceased to be a problem in New York" with the conviction of Berkman and Emma Goldman, but that now it would be a serious thing for the police again. It may be so. In that case, it is the business of the police to put it down, if it takes the form of violence or law-breaking. But just now it is not anarchy that is the issue. The sole question is whether the anarchists were properly convicted of conspiracy to impede the Draft law. They enjoy the right to have that decided by the highest judicial authority. It is one of the ways of liberty.

If any are distressed by the exhibition of the nature of American democracy, let them consider this fact, along with the others. None of the things we have mentioned affects the nation's main purpose. It is just as ready to sacrifice and endure all that may be necessary as it was on the first day of the war. The great work laid upon it it is entirely ready to do. It will be done with much friction and with a huge kicking up of dust, no doubt, but it will be done. Those who have longest observed the life of this country know that it is capable of splendid emotions and noble efforts, at the same time that it is apparently absorbed in minor pursuits and petty squabbles. The latter we shall have to grin and bear, reasonably content so long as the big things of national resolve and high endeavor fail us not.

The Two Voices

ONE comment on the speech of Chancellor Michaelis was that it sought to please both sides in Germany, and hence was doomed to failure. But it seems, rather, to have bewildered both sides. This is as true of England and America as it is of Germany. In all these countries the reception given to the Chancellor's address is curiously double—even contradictory. There were two voices in the speech, and there are two attitudes among its world auditors. Lloyd George vigorously assailed the Chancellor's statement as a proof that Michaelis was really under the control of the Imperialists and the Junkers. One of the British Premier's epithets of denunciation was that the Chancellor's utterances were "two-faced." But this implies that there was at least one face towards peace. That fact is seized upon by at least two influential English newspapers, the *Manchester Guardian* and the London *Telegraph*. One is a Liberal, the other a Tory. They agree, however, in asserting that the German Government, through the Chancellor's speech and by the resolution voted by the Reichstag, has gone much further than ever before in opening the door for peace.

The same two tendencies are observable in the comments of the German press that trickle through to Copenhagen, and in the speeches made in the Reichstag after Chancellor Michaelis had ended. If he was appointed to office to appease dissatisfaction in Germany, and to bind all parties together in a new and stronger union for the prosecution of the war, it is already evident that he has not succeeded. Attack by Socialists and Radicals was outspoken. Particularly did the Chancellor's assurances in regard to the justification and good results of the submarine warfare come in for ridicule. Scheidemann boldly declared that the U-boats had done more harm than good to the German cause; and, recalling the confident prophecies that two or three months of sinking merchantmen would be enough to compel England to sue for peace, he called out, "Your submarine watch has run down." This is a spreading conviction in Germany. The people are no longer deceived by official promises on that subject. This is one reason for mounting dis-

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content and division of opinion. Another lies in the uncertainty and slowness of the Government in the matter of political reforms. Concerning them, too, the Chancellor's speech was two-faced. A Prussian democratic franchise may come and may not, if the present Government has its way; and as for the setting up of parliamentary control, that appears to be evaporating into such good-fellow hobnobbings with members of the Reichstag as the Kaiser graciously indulged in after the adjournment.

None of these manœuvres can conceal the truth that there is strong and sharp dissent in Germany from the policy of the Government. This relates both to the conduct of the war and to the question of German democratization. On this last point the warnings of the semi-official Cologne *Gazette* are most illuminating. It pleads with the German people to be very cautious about the whole business of democracy; to go about it slowly and in their own way; never to yield to promptings from the outside, and to resist the "lure" held out by other nations. What could be a surer indication that the leaven of democracy is powerfully at work in Germany? Moreover, if in all this and in the matter of peace without annexations or indemnities the attitude of the Government is two-faced, in that fact itself the proof stands written of a vast change. How short a time ago it was that the Kaiser and his Ministers set their faces like flint against all concessions? And as for the German people, the idea of any difference of opinion among them was laughed at. They were a whole nation animated by a single purpose. That cannot be said of them to-day. The rift has come in German unity, and what may follow no man can say.

If the Chancellor's move for peace has had a conflicting and generally hostile reception, the fault lies in the language which he used. The speech appears in parts to have been one of studied ambiguity. And Dr. Michaelis never once came to the scratch and pronounced the name of Belgium. That word has now become a sort of touchstone for the whole world. It is a test of German sincerity. It is the central thing in the cause of the Allies. "No forced acquisitions" is too vague. The nations wait for the magic words—Belgian independence and Belgian restoration. Let the German Government plainly utter them, and it could not be long before there were mediation or negotiations to bring about a peace. But until the German Government gives this sign of repentance, this pledge of restitution, the Allies and the United States must cease not in their preparations nor spare their energies. The people of Germany know how they can have peace. President Wilson has told them; Lloyd George has told them. If they really intend a peace without annexations, with Belgium restored, as a first, indispensable condition, all they have to do is to make their Government say so definitely.

Reconstruction in France

AT the moment when the Germans were only sixty miles from Paris and making their supreme effort at Verdun, there was planned and held in the capital the Exposition de la Cité Reconstituée. Nothing could have shown more graphically the unconquerable spirit of a nation whose head, if bloody, was unbowed. The Exhibition had not come to Paris in the natural order of things. The collections of which it had been originally composed were on their way to India as part of their world itinerary when they were sent to the bottom by the Emden. The loss was serious, since the collections represented the work of twenty years, and many of the documents belonging to them were irreplaceable. But those concerned faced the task of gathering a new collection as energetically as if the world was interested chiefly in civic exhibitions. Rapidly it was increased, until Paris requested that it might share in the restored Exhibition by showing as part of it its own collections. The perilous passage of the seas was made in safety, and last spring and summer inhabitants of Paris looked upon plans for rebuilding their wasted cities while the guns were beginning a new triumph of destruction.

The exhibition, which is described by Prof. Patrick Geddes, of Edinburgh, in the current number of the *National Municipal Review*, included plans for the reconstruction of Rheims and other towns and villages in the war zone, and also model constructions, arranged separately and in street rows, and grouped in miniature villages. Prizes had been offered for the best village plans, and competitors had been provided with plans of three types of ruined agricultural villages of varying character. The results proved that not even a cataclysm can alter the fundamental tendency of a city-planner to take a blank sheet of paper and decorate it with a more perfect Utopia. Observers must have forgotten the war for a moment as they gazed in amused wonder upon the boulevards of Paris, its squares, rond-points, even the Etoile, plumped down upon a helpless village, as if to efface what little had been spared by a grimmer enemy. The prevailing mistake was in treating villages as suburbs, an error natural enough for the artist to whom all Gaul is divided into two parts, Paris and her environs. It was not clearly grasped by most of those competing that the peasant requires first of all a homestead, a working farm-centre, as Professor Geddes terms it, and not a pleasant retreat just outside of a metropolis.

Interestingly enough, one of the most practical exhibits was that of English Friends (Quakers). This was because their representatives had been engaged in the work of reconstruction in the Departments of the Marne and Meuse for more than two years. Their exhibit included a wooden hut of three rooms, such as they have been building in large numbers in the recovered district. But the great problem, of course, is not of individual houses, but of communities. The French Senate has begun the tremendous task by passing a bill requiring every town, whether it is in the devastated area or not, to carry out its future development according to modern principles of city planning. At the top will be a Federal Commission, presiding over a commission in each of the eighty-six departments, which in turn will oversee the local commissions. The difficulty lies in harmonizing conflicting considerations. It would be easy to build a thousand villages, one very much like another, but who would live in one? A commission that tried to standardize French communities would have a bigger job on its hands than any invader.

The problem of reconstruction is thus not simply a matter of money or of labor or even of comprehensive planning. It is the problem of rebuilding upon new lines that shall not sacrifice the charm of those that are gone. More attention must be paid to sanitation than before, but the claims of sanitation, of traffic, and other utilitarian factors must be adjusted to those of æsthetic interests. The artist is bound to clash with the engineer. How far-reaching are the plans already making is shown by the discussion over

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the sorest of France's wounds—Rheims. The proposals at the Paris Exhibition for the reconstruction of the cathedral quarter of the city tended to provide for an excessive opening-up, an error of both French and German town-planners of an earlier day. The Germans had awakened to the mistake before the war and were arranging competitions for building up again around their cathedrals, so that they would appear, not set down like models on a museum floor, but soaring above the homes grouped about them like a protecting genius. The eyes of the world will be centred upon reconstruction in France, but the activity there will be merely upon a larger scale than elsewhere. A hint of the scene that will succeed the drama of destruction is given by the statement that architects, engineers, and officials are working out comprehensive plans for traffic routes for an area of nearly two thousand square miles around London.

The Negro and the Nation

"I HAD for a long time ceased to read newspapers. . . . But this momentous question, like a fire bell in the night, awakened me and filled me with terror." There can hardly be any persons to-day who are imitating Jefferson in discarding newspapers, but the sudden resurgence of the "negro question" is in a way as startling, if by no means so alarming, as was its first ominous appearance upon the occasion of the Missouri Compromise. Senator Tillman, returning to Washington to participate in the discussion of one of the prime measures connected with the war, gains the attention of the country by a speech upon the problem of the negro, in which there is no longer any pretence that the matter is one for the South to settle. The riots in East St. Louis do not concern even Illinois alone. "Indirectly," as the Senator from South Carolina remarks, they concern "the whole country." This recognition that the problem is, as those who have devoted themselves most earnestly to its solution have always contended, not sectional but national, is an important step forward, despite Senator Tillman's cynical comment that the better the North knows the negro the less it likes him.

Whether as a result of this nation-wide viewing of the problem, or not, there is a calm seriousness in the new consideration of it, an evident desire to get to the bottom of it, that is the most promising development it has had in many a day. Nowhere is there any manifestation of an inclination to dismiss the troubles at East St. Louis as a local or exceptional incident. Everywhere they are taken as indicative of what might occur under similar conditions in other places, and therefore symptomatic of something more than a flash of passion. Discussion of them in the South has been as restrained in temper and as free in candor as anywhere in the North. The old attitude towards the negro question as a *chose jugée,* of which prominent Southerners have often bitterly complained, is rapidly becoming an attitude of the frankest self-examination and criticism. The traditional Southerner who writes his newspaper to protest against any suggestion that the white man of the South is in any way to blame for the restlessness of the black man is answered by a volley of facts and figures that put the debate upon a very different plane from that of inherited or acquired prejudice.

One of the most illuminating of these debates took place recently in the Houston *Post.* More than a column was allowed to a reader in which to deny that the problem was anything more than a question of worthy and unworthy negroes. Upon sanitary conditions, which the newspaper had denounced, he professed ignorance, emphasizing this admission by the smashing reply: "The *Post* has always lauded Houston to the skies as being the paradise on earth, and if in doing so it knew about these unsanitary conditions of the negroes, it is not our fault." But what stirred him deepest was the statement that "the $1,500,000 of the State school fund, which constitutes the negroes' share, is diverted to the white schools in most counties." This simply could not be true—not in Texas. Let the editor specify one single instance of it, and the grand jury would be on its trail. Instead of specifying the one instance so ardently longed for, the *Post* pointed out that not many more than half of the negro children in the State have ever been regularly in school, although the fund is regularly expended to the last dollar. "Somebody else enjoys the benefit." "One might as well declare," it added, "that the Prairie View institution were maintained just as generously as the Agricultural and Mechanical College or any of our white institutions supported by the public."

This was but one in the Houston *Post's* bill of particulars. "As for inequality before the law," which it set forth as one of the causes of negro discontent, "judges in this city have from the bench denounced the custom of bringing troops of negro crap-shooters before them, while the more pretentious poker games were permitted to run unmolested." And it took leave to say that no man who thinks the negro is treated well enough can render much aid. If the men interested hold that view, the exodus will continue. It, therefore, remains firm in the belief that it is time

> to look more carefully into the living conditions of the negroes who inhabit the cities and towns; to look into the question of wages in the rural counties, including rentals, and the manner of payment of wages and collection of rentals; to go into the subject of negro schools . . . to protect him against imposition by which he is frequently denied full value for his money; to protect him against persecution at the hands of petty peace officers and against injustice in the courts, due largely to the fact that he is not able to employ counsel, and which is shown by the much heavier punishments inflicted upon him than upon criminals of other races for the same offences; a resolute stand by every community against mob law; and the organization in every county with a large negro contingent of a representative committee on welfare that will investigate the ordinary complaints of negro citizens and render aid where it is deserved and is possible.

We should like to see the Northern newspaper that has laid down a more comprehensive, better-considered plan.

If it is the duty of the South to treat well the negroes it has, it is equally the duty of the North to deal fairly with those that come here, especially when they have been attracted by the promise of better things. The resolutions passed by Boston negroes, declaring "the greatest enemy of humanity here to be organized labor," refer to Mr. Gompers's really outrageous utterances in Carnegie Hall. They even point to the "President of the Republic, under whose Administration every sort of governmental stigma and discrimination has been put upon every citizen of African extraction, in violation of his own words when first securing election." They state but the truth when they resolve that the East St. Louis affair "reflects shame and discredit on the white Americans." It is for North and South together to show that when they say democracy, they mean it.

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A-Sailing In

(Somewhere in France)

I saw three ships a-sailing in—
A-sailing in—a-sailing in!

IT was not three ships, and I am not allowed to say how many. It was somewhere in France, and I am not allowed to say where. But I have seen, with my own eyes, the first body of American troops disembarking in a French port.

"These stories read like bluff—and, even if they are true, they give us no reason to be uneasy," says startled Reventlow in the *Deutsche Tageszeitung*. "Remember—Hindenburg does not admit the possibility of American help within a year's time."

There were German prisoners working at the quay, and there were German prisoners at work on the camp to which these American soldiers marched away in Europe. In a half-dozen places of France, I have seen such prisoners. The stolid expression of their faces varies little, sometimes resigned at issuing from the storm, sometimes with remains of arrogance and resentful of observation. Regularly, it is a waiting expression. Here they are interested.

They did not believe Americans would come to fight. If they did, submarines would get them. So says the doubting *Deutsche Tageszeitung:* "When our General Staff decided on a submarine war to the death, it foresaw even this eventuality."

These German prisoners could not resist the evidence of their eyes. They saw for themselves company after company after company—I am not allowed to say how many—of straight, strong, keen-eyed, clean-made soldiers from America stepping off to their camp in France. To any army eye it was clear that, for the half of them, these troops are men well worn to service and that all know what they are about.

Among these prisoners who found themselves so suddenly at work for a new enemy, some of the younger showed frank interest; but most were moody. On a few faces was open dislike, and some, who looked like under-university professors, were in a ponderous puzzle. As I passed beside a group, one muttered: "We are Austrians, not Germans"—as if that made a difference. Another said in English: "I am a Bohemian, and I was in Chicago before the war"—as if he wished there had been no war and he might be in Chicago now.

On German prisoners who are only waiting the impression made by such arrivals of American troops is not, of course, the same as that produced on the German fighting line and, behind it, on the German people. "It's all bluff!" and "Don't worry!" will continue to be the countersigns. The impression on the average newspaper correspondent who saw these ships come in is that the change of countersigns may be speedy.

Between the seaport with its passing camp and the fighting front where the expedition must wind up, American officers and engineers have been looking out for bases and suitable railway junctions and whatever is needed for the movement of troops. Since the French censor has passed it (in *L'Heure,* Friday evening, June 29), and because it shows another impression which the French are perhaps inclined to exaggerate, I may be allowed to give a story of this American work. A French colonel, who was with the American engineers but did not tell the story, informs me that the indication of the place is not exact—which is quite another thing. "They and We" the French reporter headlines the story, willing to stir up his own people by comparison.

"Our good friends of America wish to organize a railway station for their army depot. So the Paris, Lyons & Mediterranean Company gave them available ground at ——— (some 150 miles south of Paris). When the Americans saw what had been turned over to them, they laughed.

"'Is that all? Why, we need at least thirty miles of track.'

"The French engineers were struck of a heap, but they gave the thirty good miles of track which were demanded. One of them remarked to the Americans: 'Well, you've got it; but it will take you six months to draw up your plans for such a depot.'

"'Six months!' exclaimed the chief American engineer. 'Why, we hope to have time to get our plans together in the train going up to Paris.'"

The French reporter adds, rubbing it in: "The next day laborers were on the spot, beginning the work."

This impression of breezy readiness and efficiency was made long ago by Americans in France. I am sure Talleyrand, who had hard times in Maine and Philadelphia, spoke of it to Napoleon when he came back. It underlies nearly everything which Tocqueville wrote about us after 1830. My taxi-cabman in Paris points out to me with pride that I am riding in an American automobile, which he has bought for himself. Before General Pershing's headquarters a crowd gathers to see and comment approvingly on the messenger's American motor tricycle with its neat side-car. American locomotive engines, made to order for French traffic, have long run on one, at least, of the chief French railway lines. As our troop transports, with their naval convoy, come steaming into French ports which I am not allowed to name, this old impression is deepened and courage is uplifted—for the war and for after the war. Reinforcements now and a remedy for short-handedness then—America's youth at the prow and the New World's machinery and free organization from hold to helm—all this is descried through the veil of the near future.

As some grave Tyrian trader, from the sea,
Descried at sunrise an emerging prow
—And saw the merry Grecian coaster come
And knew the intruders on his ancient home,
The young light-hearted masters of the waves.

Only, we are not intruders, and the French desire to see more and more of us coming—and, as the mayor of the port said to me for an earnest message to my people, with more and more and ever more ships.

When S. S. McClure, who passes his life stirring up ideas successively, was last in Paris, I asked him: "What about city government by commission and efficiency generally in America?" He laughed: "It isn't good to insist on efficiency there now." Why not—if it is a free man's efficiency? It is slavish efficiency organized for collective aggression which has wrought all this woe in France. Just as after the war of 1870 the victory was attributed to the German schoolmaster, so now the enduring war is put to the account of German organization. And that is one reason why the prompt, efficient arrival of American troops so com-

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forts the French heart. This organization, with its freedom, shall drive back that, with its attempt at enslavement.

I was in company with an elderly French officer who watched curiously every movement of our troops, at the port, in camp, on leave in the town. He saw the "detail" rounding up laggards. He heard a passing army captain order men to take back to their ship hired stevedores, unmilitary and not of his service, who were giving too much East Side back-talk after their shore reaction. He noted the soldier's swinging elastic step. And he said: "It is not our discipline; but I see that it is discipline, and I think it is severe." A French general's staff officer, who has lived in the United States, added: "Yes, and they will not pat me on the shoulder as the English privates do." That, he acknowledged, was only an excess of Entente Cordiale.

So the one impression is—Americans have come for the long pull, the strong pull, the pull all together against the enemy of the rights of all.

STODDARD DEWEY

Paris, July 4

The Pragmatic Attitude

I.

AMONG his interesting personal sketches of "Six Major Prophets" (reprinted from the *Independent*, like "Major Prophets of To-day") Mr. Slosson includes, along with Shaw, Wells, Chesterton, and Eucken, the leaders of pragmatism* in England and in America, F. C. S. Schiller, of Oxford, and John Dewey, of Columbia. It is probably fair to say that as a body of analytic thought pragmatism owes more to Dewey than to any other representative of the school. The most important of his own earlier contributions, including his share of the "Studies in Logical Theory" (1903), the volume which may be said to have given pragmatism a standing among the schools, are reprinted in the "Essays in Experimental Logic"—a book which, as Mr. Slosson remarks, is "hard sledding," not only for "the skimming reader," but for the trained student of philosophy, who will find the essays highly suggestive and hardly less elusive. In "Creative Intelligence," however, which I shall use as the basis for this essay, we have both the latest of pragmatic documents and the most mature and comprehensive statement, not of the pragmatic system—since pragmatism refuses to be a system—but of *the pragmatic attitude*; being a coöperative statement of eight philosophers most distinctly identified with pragmatism in America. The essays are, perhaps without exception, able and skilful. And it seems to me that no attentive reader can deny that the point of view is important, even while contesting its claim to be supreme.

Under a seemingly heterogeneous collection of titles the field of philosophy is rather neatly distributed. We have the pragmatic interpretation of philosophy by Professor Dewey; of logic by Professor Moore, of Chicago; of mathematical thought by Professor Brown, of Stanford; of scientific method by Professor Mead, of Chicago; of psychology by Professor Bode, of Illinois; of economics by Professor Stuart, of Stanford; of ethics by Professor Tufts, of Chicago; and of religion and art by Professor Kallen, of Wisconsin. The essays of Dewey, Moore, and Mead follow closely the same line. Their purpose is to show that all traditional conceptions, in philosophy, logic, and scientific method, are hopelessly futile because they rest upon abstract and "static" conceptions of man and the world, derived from Greek thought; the antidote to Greek thought is modern science, of which pragmatism is the philosophy. Brown attacks the stronghold of "static" conceptions by showing, not unconvincingly, that what the mathematician calls mathematical intelligence is really only skill. After reading these four essays one wonders why there should be any "Need for a Recovery of Philosophy" (Dewey's title) or for a "Reformation of Logic" (Moore's), since, as it seems, a purely empirical scientific method, interested only in obtaining "specific" effects from "specific" causes for "specific" purposes, is sufficient for all purposes.

Attacking another abstraction, Bode shows that "consciousness," traditionally supposed to represent a substantive entity of some kind set over against the world of which we are conscious, is really only a name for the fact that we react in the present to the future. Consciousness is thus a function in the process of realizing ends, and nonexistent so far as ends are achieved. Stuart attacks the mechanical theory of the market-process, by which, in economic theory, the market is rendered immune from ethical influences, and shows that this theory is based upon the false conception of a ready-made self, *i. e.*, of a buyer whose wants are determined, once for all, before contact with the goods or with the seller. According to Stuart, every process of valuation is a "personal adventure," an experimental search for a good lying beyond present imagination. Along the same line, in the ethical field, Tufts shows that the judgment of duty is "synthetic," "social," and "creative," a free casting in of one's lot and one's personal ideals with those of the community rather than a derivation from a predetermined self-interest. Kallen pronounces a rather grim criticism upon transcendental philosophy and transcendental religion by calling them, after Freud, forms of "somnambulism"; by which he means that in transcendentalism we naïvely attribute human values to a world not made for us. The function of philosophy and religion is to create an existence corresponding to human values—like the function of art, in which value and existence are one. When, however, the unity of art and existence is illustrated in the shop-girl's vicarious enjoyment of luxury through the novels of Laura Jean Libbey one wonders what kind of existence is meant.

II

In a philosophy so far-reaching in its possible implications, and withal so impressionistically presented, it is rather difficult to select a point of departure for criticism

*"Pragmatism" is a term which pragmatists now use from necessity rather than from choice. Schiller, I believe, has always preferred "humanism." Dewey has used "instrumentalism" and now prefers "experimentalism"—the philosophy, one might say, of the open mind. Pragmatism is open-mindedness raised to the level of a universal philosophical attitude.

Creative Intelligence. Essays in the Pragmatic Attitude. By John Dewey, Addison W. Moore, Harold Chapman Brown, George H. Mead, Boyd H. Bode, Henry Waldgrave Stuart, James Hayden Tufts, Horace M. Kallen. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $2 net.

Essays in Experimental Logic. By John Dewey. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. $1.75 net.

Six Major Prophets. By Edwin E. Slosson. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50 net.

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or analysis. The reader of "Creative Intelligence" will discover that pragmatism means at least something more subtle than that "the truth is that which works." The main lines of the pragmatic contention are, however, clear enough. From the time of Plato all of our philosophy has rested upon a distinction between man and the world, between soul and body, mind and matter, persons and things, consciousness and the object of consciousness. The problem for philosophy, as traditionally interpreted, has been to explain how these seemingly opposed terms are related and to determine which is more significant for a view of the world as a whole; and, according as the burden of emphasis has been laid upon one side or the other, philosophers have been distinguished as idealists or materialists. In modern philosophy the issue has reached an acute stage in the problem of knowledge, or epistemology: how can a conscious being know a world which is not himself? And if he cannot, then does such a world exist? At the present time it would seem that the chief result of three centuries of discussion of this question is mental fatigue; and it is at this stage of fatigue that pragmatism comes upon the scene.

The pragmatist solves the problem by the summary method of declaring it to be meaningless. To an unpragmatic temperament, indeed, the most depressing thing about pragmatism is the extent to which it reduces all of the seemingly most serious of human thought to idle curiosity. The problem of knowledge, for example, is an artificial problem created by an "intellectualistic" abstraction from the whole of experience of a pure mind on the one side and a pure object on the other. In reality mind does not exist except in knowing an object, nor, it seems—but upon this point I am far from clear—an object which is not known. The same reply is given to every historical question of philosophy. The question of appearance and reality, of the relation of soul and body, of things and their qualities and relations, of universal and particular, of permanence and change, of eternal and temporal, and the question of free will—all of these are the outcome of a false sundering of man and nature, inherited from Greek philosophy. As against this, Darwin and modern science have shown—once for all, it seems, in the "experimentalist" philosophy—that man and nature are absolutely continuous. In the light of this continuity it is meaningless to speak of consciousness as a unique sort of reality and to set up the person, or self, as an independent entity. The person is nothing but a function (a "process of inquiry")—and a variable function at that—in a process of experience of which a world of objects is another function. Consciousness, in other words, is only another name for a process of readjustment and reorganization occurring in an organic world-process. In the light of this analysis it becomes clear that the traditional problems of philosophy, so far from having an "eternal" meaning, were simply misconceptions of, and artificial abstractions from, needs that were distinctly temporal, practical, social, and now historical. And if you ask how error and illusion (supposed to testify to the independence of mind) can exist in a world in which mind and nature are continuous, well, error is a natural fact like any other and due to natural causes.

Such an attack is as embarrassing for traditional philosophy to meet as it is easy for pragmatism to make. Since all human thought is human and never reaches "the last analysis," it is not impossible to convict any philosophy of incoherence if you carry the analysis far enough. This may be illustrated by calling pragmatism itself to the stand. Pragmatism, eschewing all "ultimate realities," nevertheless professes to be based solidly upon experience. Well, what is the character of "experience"? Or, if you please, of the world as given in "the events of every-day occurrence"? To be sure, we have been warned that any question about experience "as a whole" is a meaningless question. Yet it is a question to which, I should say, the traditional philosophies have been able to give not wholly meaningless answers. The idealist, taking his cue from personal life, could point to the suggestions of personal activity in nature as an indication of what he expected to find, upon further analysis, in experience as a whole; the materialist, on the other hand, could point to the indications of blind mechanism underlying the seemingly purposive activity of human beings. By the use of "abstractions," such as "person" and "mechanism," each could, at least in some degree, indicate what he thought the world as a whole would turn out to be. And the pragmatist does not, after all, leave the question unanswered. Indeed, I do not see how he is to avoid answering this question if he is ever to define a "pragmatic attitude." Nor does it seem to me that his answers are free from the abstractions which he has condemned as meaningless. One may suspect, indeed, that, so far from his having escaped from the abstractions, they are only playing hide-and-seek with him—and with his reader. Thus, in a sentence clearly deliberated, Dewey tells us (p. 10) that "experience is primarily a process of undergoing." What a pragmatist can mean by "primarily," a word which seems to imply somewhere a "static" point of departure, I forbear to ask. "Undergoing," however, even though presently to be defined as both a suffering and a doing, seems to me clearly to imply the materialistic abstraction of self and world, in which we see a rather rigid world setting the conditions of life for a rather helpless self. But the reader who adopts this suggestion is presently to learn from Stuart that experience is ("primarily," no doubt) a "personal adventure"; and from Tufts that experience is "creative." Tufts quotes with appreciation a fine passage from Croce: "Man is not a consumer of pleasures. He is a creator of life." This brings to our minds the idealistic abstraction of a self which, by virtue of its own consciousness of self, is victorious over a yielding world. For Kallen, however, who lays great stress upon the fact that the world was not made for us, experience has again become an undergoing, and an undergoing, it seems, which is nearly all a matter of enduring.

Thus the bewildered reader, seeking to grasp "the pragmatic attitude" and to see the world as the pragmatist sees it, is likely to feel himself caught "going and coming." When he ventures to credit pragmatism with a belief in a world hospitable to human ideals, he is checked by the discovery that the pragmatist is above all things an empirical scientist and man of fact. When, thereupon, he has written down the pragmatist as a man who takes the world as he finds it, he is checked again—in a tone of almost idealistic moral indignation—by the reminder that, in the pragmatic logic, experience is creative. And if, undaunted, he venture to ask how both positions are to be reconciled in a single "pragmatic attitude," how—especially how, without imputing reality to "abstractions"—experience can be both an undergoing and a creation at once, he will find the experimental philosophy closing the door to further inquiry by some such sentence as the following (Stuart, p. 303): "If

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finally the question be pressed, how there can be an interest of this seemingly self-contradictory type in human nature, the answer can only be that we must take the facts as we find them"; or (Bode, p. 267): "Whatever the nature of our experience, it is just what it is, and not something else." Appeals to the opaque are so common in "Creative Intelligence" as to be almost characteristic. It is evident that the constitution of experience, like that of the Trinity, is a "mystery."

Nor does the reader fare better when he seeks the pragmatic attitude through the pragmatic temperament. Temperamentally, it seems that pragmatism is a coat of many colors. In Dewey pragmatism is resolutely prosaic—as if no normal human being could conceivably cherish an aspiration not to be satisfied by modern science. Stuart's pragmatism suggests a sporting attitude towards life and a world of poetry and spice. In Tufts pragmatism speaks quite easily in a tone of Christian piety and hopefulness; while Kallen inclines rather to an epicurean pessimism. Bode, after making consciousness a physiological function, like digestion, ends by praising God for "the wondrous activity whereby this plastic dance of circumstances that we call the universe transcends the domain of mechanism and embodies itself in the values of conscious life."

III

Yet beneath the variety of color we may discern the outlines of a typically pragmatic attitude. The attitude may be defined by reference to two principles which I shall distinguish as the principles of modernity and of futurity—or of immediacy and of anticipation; each, however, being so intimately implied in the other as to make them in motive virtually one. The first, which I shall merely point out in passing, is the principle of the final authority of present social practice. The pragmatist no more ventures to question the views of life and of the world that are current in his time—for example, the scientific movement of to-day—than he will question the "correctness" of this year's style of hat. For what can you mean by a "correct" style but the style now sanctioned by social convention? The second principle is stated by Dewey when he says that "anticipation is . . . more primary than recollection; projection than summoning of the past; the prospective than the retrospective" (p. 13); and that (p. 14) "imaginative recovery of the bygone is indispensable to successful invasion of the future, but its status is that of an instrument." In this point of view we have the principle common to all of the writers of "Creative Intelligence." Pragmatism, like any other view of the world, may be treated as the expression of a personal attitude. For pragmatism, however, the only "real" attitude—the only attitude conceivable for an intelligent human being—is the attitude of anticipation, or of anticipation joined with immediacy. The past is dead and gone; the real lies all before us.

From the standpoint of practical common-sense this assumption seems obvious and conclusive. From the standpoint of reflective intelligence, which pragmatism, like every other philosophy, claims as its own, the case is not so clear. Just after I had read "Creative Intelligence" a colleague spoke to me of his intention to write during the next year a book which he had been many years preparing, for the writing of which, however, under the present disturbed conditions, he was not eager. "But," he added, "if I fail to write that book, I shall have wasted twenty years of work." Suppose, now, that he writes the book. Shall we say, with Dewey, that the writing of the book is the end for which the twenty years of work will be merely instrumental? May we not just as well say that the writing of the book will be merely instrumental in making good the twenty years of work? For my own part, if a choice must be made between these two points of view, I cannot see that either is more "real" or more intelligent than the other. They are equally a matter of temperament. Some men—not usually the least reflective of men—are temperamentally disposed to emphasize loyalty to the past; for them nothing is life which fails to realize their earlier aspirations. Others are disposed to emphasize the possibilities of the future, and for them nothing is life except as it includes novelty and growth. All that the "more primary" reality of anticipation then amounts to is a dogmatic insistence upon the prior claims of the pragmatic temperament. If the appeal be made to intelligence, then I should say that neither attitude can claim exclusive rights. As his type of unintelligence the pragmatist points to the man whose views of life and plans of action, formed once for all, are never to be illumined either by reflection or by experience. Intelligence, he rightly urges, is "creative." But between the stolid stupidity of the hidebound conservative and the aimless superficiality of the seeker after novelty who, *ex hypothesi*, cannot pretend to have formed views of life that are worth preserving, it strikes me that, on the score of intelligence, there is little to choose. Dewey refers to the retrospective attitude as "senile"—a characterization strikingly expressive of the pragmatic attitude. By the same token, one might retort by calling the prospective attitude infantile; for it is chiefly the little ones who live by anticipation.

And therefore I am somewhat at a loss to understand the resentment aroused in pragmatists by the "vulgar" interpretation which conceives pragmatism in the sense of the narrowly and superficially practical and attributes to it a preoccupation with bread-and-butter motives or with the pleasures of the moment. So far as I can see, this interpretation is implied in the logic of the primary reality of anticipation. I do not doubt that pragmatists are sincere in their appeal to reflective intelligence; nor do I forget that, while breaking at every moment with their past, they stand for continuity and consistency of aim, and for largeness of view, in planning for the future. But such continuity, I should say, is quite without warrant in their theory. For if to-day may reject yesterday, it seems that to-morrow may not less ruthlessly reject to-day (and the pragmatic attitude along with it); and therefore that, in the end, nothing is left but to enjoy to-day while we have it. In pragmatism, as I have suggested, anticipation is intimately related to immediacy. "Anticipation" means that the real is just before us; therefore let us wake up—shake off our "somnambulisms"—and get down to business. There can be no doubt that the attitude is practical. From the practical standpoint it is clearly better that on the return from the funeral the band should play "When Johnny Comes Marching Home." But no one pretends that the purpose is to induce in the hearers a thoughtful and reflective attitude towards life.

In treating the future as the valuable and real, the past as a mere instrument, the pragmatic attitude attaches a kind of exclusive importance to the present. The present is not merely one moment in the process of life. It is ever the supreme moment which condemns the past to death and

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gives birth to the future. To my mind, this supreme regard for the present is quite remote from any attitude of reflection. To reflect, I should say, is to disengage ourselves from the urge of the present and to survey our life broadly, past as well as future, using the present to remind us that other moments of life are also creative. And from this perspective it seems that no part of life, past or future, can be regarded as a mere instrument for another part, as end. The problem of life for any moment is then, it seems, to find the course which will somehow *both* realize the aspirations of the past *and* embrace the opportunities of the future. Life, in short, is not life unless it be both a fulfilment and a creation. How it can be both is indeed the great question; and the question which it is the merit of "Creative Intelligence" to have made deeper and more significant. Even the "instrumental" theory of the past is an attempt to bridge the gulf of the present (which James has called the darkest moment of life) by some sort of continuity. So far as the past is to be regarded as a *mere* instrument, as something which anticipation may discard at will, and which need not have its possibilities developed just because it is there, the attempt fails. But any kind of continuity is ominous for the pragmatic metaphysics and the pragmatic attitude. For as soon as we begin to coördinate the various acts of life in a plan of life "as a whole," we are confronted with the "abstraction" of myself, a person; then with the abstraction of a somehow external world; and then we are in the midst of all of the abstractions of traditional philosophy.

It is therefore not a cause for wonder that the pragmatist, in forming his theory of life and of intelligence, should overlook the aspect of fulfilment and place the whole emphasis upon the aspect of creativeness: at any rate, he insists, nothing can be called life, or intelligence, which is not creative. And in developing the significance of this aspect I should say that pragmatism renders a very important service to philosophy. But the exclusive regard for creativeness suggests an interesting observation—namely, that the real meaning of the pragmatic criticism of abstractions is that the pragmatic attitude prefers its own. Throughout "Creative Intelligence" we are confronted with a humanity so exclusively "forward-looking" in respect to its own motives as to be really amnesic; and with an evolutionary philosophy in which, seemingly, the motive for each next decision is a creation out of nothing. In seeking a companion-piece for the pragmatic conception of humanity, I am reminded of Peter Schlemihl, the man without a shadow. But Chamisso was admittedly playing with an abstraction. Pragmatism would have us accept as a concrete, conscious being a man without a past. WARNER FITE

Correspondence

TAXATION AND LIFE INSURANCE

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of June 21 approves the proposal to exempt from the income tax gifts to charitable or educational institutions, and gives as the chief reason the fact that, were people to curtail their benevolences, the Government would have to take over the work at a greatly increased outlay.

There is one institution of which these words might be spoken no less truly, and yet instead of being exempted, it is taxed even beyond its share. The institution of life insurance, directly by preventing the dependency of its beneficiaries upon public charity, and indirectly by the prevention of poverty, ignorance, and crime, saves the Government untold wealth. It is more effective than charity, because charity represents the attempt of some to help others, while life insurance induces and enables a man to recognize his obligations, to exercise foresight, and to prevent, as far as his own dependents are concerned, the necessity of help from others. It is, perhaps, the greatest single agency attacking all of the problems which charitable institutions are created to combat, and it has the advantage of being natural in origin, and of stimulating instead of weakening the forces which help to prevent the distress it relieves.

Discrimination in favor of life insurance for purposes of taxation would mean more than a saving to policyholders. It would be a tribute paid by the American Government to an American institution which, by its remarkable growth, may be said to be the best concrete expression of the American characteristics of love of independence and readiness to assume responsibility. It would be an important encouragement towards the further development of those admirable qualities.

It is true that the patriotic citizen should be ready to bear his share of the burden of government and slow to ask exemption for himself or his business, and I remember Mark Twain's opulent friend who *except for the eleven saving clauses under the head of deduction* "should be beggared every year to support this hateful and wicked, this extortionate and tyrannical Government." Yet it does seem that the exemption of life insurance premiums, as well as gifts, would be in accord with public policy, and, what is of more importance, that it is time that the Government recognized, in matters of taxation, the essentially benevolent character of the institution of life insurance.

FOREE DENNIS,
General Agent Mutual Benefit Life Insurance Co.

Louisville, Ky., July 2

A HORRIBLE EXAMPLE

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is to be hoped that young men who are looking forward to journalism as a profession will take to heart the lesson of the Daniels-Creel submarine incident. Here was a case where the public, treated to the sort of "good story" for which it is supposed to have a consuming thirst, turned from it in disgust and demanded the official reports. The superior news value of the plain, blunt truth was never better demonstrated. Our future managing editors will do well to set it down in their tables that "Punch," "Human Interest," and "Heart-Throbs" are not, in modern journalism, the "Whole Thing." FRED NEWTON SCOTT

University of Michigan, July 14

DR. JORDAN EXPLAINS

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Under the head of "Time's Revenges" in your issue of June 21, your correspondent "Tattler" makes a number of singularly careless statements, in which my name is concerned. I may be allowed briefly to note some of these.

As for the Ross case, Dr. Ross was not "dismissed" from

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Stanford University for "opinions" distasteful to the founder or to any one else. He made a violent speech against the Japanese because of their high birth-rate, and he tendered his resignation at once, unasked, on finding that Mrs. Stanford felt humiliated by its lack of dignity and apparent injustice. I did not wish to accept the resignation, and the matter lay in abeyance for a time. I was finally obliged to accept it because of alleged utterances of Dr. Ross, which, as reported, unjustly attacked the memory of Governor Stanford. Dr. Ross then accepted the year's pay in advance, with liberty to accept another position. His published statement was made after receiving an appointment in the University of Nebraska.

I may admit that if I had foreseen the confusion which could be produced by officious and ill-informed outsiders, I should have done some things differently, and so would Dr. Ross. However "advanced" his opinions, Dr. Ross was an excellent teacher and had served laboriously during the six lean years in which Mrs. Stanford and her helpers had struggled almost hopelessly against wanton litigation and financial distress. Moreover, after winning the suit, needlessly forced on us by the Government, we had still to pay off eight millions of accumulated debt, before any part of the University's intended endowment could be secured. Mrs. Stanford was then sole trustee because no other adjustment, at the time, could be legal. I paid salaries with my personal check from the allowance made each month for household service by the Probate Court. To insure legal protection, I gave each instructor each year a personal contract. Meanwhile we all did our best to protect a wise and sensitive woman no longer young and harassed by insoluble problems of litigation and finance, on whose continued health the existence of the institution depended, from all avoidable worry. With this Dr. Ross was in full sympathy, and his resignation disarmed criticism. No outside financial interest had anything to do with the matter. The free-silver episode happened four years before, and Mrs. Stanford neither knew nor cared what Dr. Ross's views were on municipal ownership or any other economic or social question.

Those interested in knowing the details were given every opportunity, and they have been long since satisfied. As for the others, it matters little. Meanwhile, after twenty-five years, I can say without fear of contradiction that there is no institution in which academic opinion has been less fettered than at Stanford University.

At Princeton in February, 1917, I made no attack on President Wilson, nor did I receive the slightest discourtesy from the students. They and I thought that I was supporting the President, as his utterances up to that time had met with my full approval. The current statement was the smart "story" of the Princeton correspondent of the New York *Times*. After the address, about thirty students met to form, not at my suggestion, a branch of the Union Against Militarism. The students present after the lecture passed by a vote, as well as one could count, of 300 to 25, a censure of the University authorities. Free speech was evidently more popular than pacifism.

The criticism on General Wood referred to reported remarks which he later disavowed.

As for Simplified Spelling, I have never left the Board nor lost sympathy with its larger purposes, which your correspondent inaccurately describes.

In the beginning I once made the careless remark that "'Thru' would make a pollywog sick," which bit of offhand humor received a publicity it did not deserve.

DAVID STARR JORDAN

Stanford University, July 16

BOOKS

Fundamental Principles of Currency

Modern Currency Reforms. By Edwin Walter Kemmerer. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.40.

EVERY day enhances the value of this work. Three years ago it would have been regarded as largely academic, dealing with situations that were past and gone, and that were unlikely to have any counterparts among nations of the first magnitude. We have here, in short, a discussion of the causes which led to the conversion of India, Porto Rico, Straits Settlement, the Philippines, and Mexico from a silver basis to the gold or gold-exchange standard. In his preface, written more than two years after the outbreak of the present war, Professor Kemmerer says: "It is hoped that the discussion of these currency reforms which follows will throw light on fundamental monetary principles, and will afford lessons of value, both by example and by warning, to the countries of Asia and Latin America, which are expected soon to undertake thorough-going reforms of their currency systems." It will be noted that he makes no mention of Germany, Austria, Russia, France, Great Britain, and the other belligerents of to-day, including our own country.

Yet the opening words of the present work are: "The student of economics often expresses regret that his science does not submit itself to the laboratory method of investigation which has proved so fruitful in the natural sciences," and that "the nearest approach the economist has to the laboratory method in studying monetary problems is through the study of modern currency reforms." It is safe to say that attempts at currency reform will play no small part in the finance of the coming years, and the laboratory experiences which Professor Kemmerer here describes will be of inestimable value to the world. To be sure, these experiences are related to fluctuating silver moneys, whereas the great problems of the future will relate to depreciated paper currencies. Yet a depreciated currency is a depreciated currency, whether it be metal or paper. There is an essential identity in the mere fact of depreciation. The aim of the work before us is to show how the five states here discussed brought their silver money to a fixed ratio with the money of the gold-standard countries. The effort of the great nations of Europe and America in coming years will be to divest their currencies of the inflation occasioned by the war and to reduce them to par with one another.

This problem has passed out of the academic stage. The great decline in the mark, the crown, and the ruble, the incessant warnings which Mr. Hartley Withers is uttering in the London *Economist* regarding the after-effects of the war on the British currency, and the fears expressed by American economists of inflation in this country, keep us from ignoring the practical nature of the situation. It is some months since predictions were uttered in various quarters that the post-bellum currencies would inevitably

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be characterized by large admixtures of silver, and doubtless the spectacular rise of late in bar silver may recall these predictions to some minds.

It is not necessary at this time, however, to give consideration to this contingency. The difficulties in the way of such a procedure are obviously great, and there is nothing in the present movement of silver to indicate that anything of the sort is in preparation.

In 1873 the states of the Latin Union closed their mints to the free coinage of silver, and the metal began its long decline. Gold practically disappeared from India. The breakdown in the comparatively fixed ratio that had so long existed between the values of gold and silver, and the subsequent instability in India of English exchange and exchange on other gold-standard countries, caused serious disturbance in India's foreign trade, and added greatly to her burdens in meeting her gold obligations. Twenty years of agitation for currency reform was the result.

In 1892 the International Monetary Conference was held at Brussels. It was hoped that an international bimetallic agreement would be effected, but before the Conference convened this hope was seen to be futile; and the Government of India, although urging the Secretary of State to support any proposals that might be made by the United States or any other country for the settlement of the silver question by international agreement, said that it seemed probable that, failing an international agreement, the United States would be forced to stop the purchase of silver. Several months later it declared that if an agreement were not effected at Brussels, the Indian mints should be closed to the free coinage of silver and arrangement made for the introduction of the gold standard. A month before the Monetary Conference convened, the Herschell committee was constituted to consider the situation and advise the home Government as to the expediency of the Indian Government's proposals.

Many in active life, in this country as well as abroad, will recall the report of the Herschell committee. The chief defects of the Indian currency were found to be: first, the financial burdens and inconveniences imposed upon the Indian Government by the falling rates of exchange with gold-standard countries; secondly, the evil effects upon the people of India through the influence of the fall in exchange on Indian commerce; thirdly, the hardships upon Europeans in official and business life in India—that is, persons whose salaries and wages were paid in silver, but who had to remit home on a gold basis.

It will be seen at a glance that the first two evils are quite likely to characterize certain European nations in the coming years as a consequence of their enormous and already greatly depreciated paper currencies. Before the present war broke out, Germany, for example, had about $350,000,000 gold in the Reichsbank, with outstanding notes amounting to about $450,000,000; to-day her gold supply is something over $600,000,000, while her outstanding notes had by January 1, 1917, increased to $3,000,000,000, in addition to which the Reichsbank has about $1,200,000,000 of deposits for which the gold is supposed to be a cover. It is needless to refer to the situation in other countries. The decline in the gold exchange value of Continental currencies has already reached a point that excites the liveliest apprehensions.

It should not be inferred that Professor Kemmerer's specific aim has been to cover the present situation. The work before us is historical and academic, but undoubtedly there is a hope in the author's mind that it may throw light on post-bellum problems. In modern times there has certainly not been a period of depreciated currencies that could begin to equal that in which we are now living, and in which we are likely to live for years to come. In their outward form the situations which Professor Kemmerer discusses are quite different from those confronting the world to-day, but in their essence the resemblance is marked; though it is unmistakable that those of the present greatly exceed in magnitude those of the past.

Polish Fiction

Tales by Polish Authors. Translated by Else C. M. Benecke. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

More Tales by Polish Authors. Translated by Else C. M. Benecke and Marie Busch. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

THESE two volumes deserve a hearty welcome, since they give the English public a glimpse of the richness and variety of modern Polish fiction, which, with the striking exception of Sienkiewicz, has been seriously neglected by translators. Rather unfortunately, however, half of the first volume is taken up by a tale of Sienkiewicz, "Bartek the Conqueror," which was already accessible. Chief in merit among the pieces here rendered for the first time are, perhaps, the three Siberian sketches by Szymanski, portraying the unutterable loneliness of the Polish exiles, torn from their native land. In "Srul—from Lubartów," for example, a Pole only recently arrived at his icy abode, where one of his first duties has been to aid in burying the frozen body of his fellow-exile Baldyga, is visited by a Jew, whom at first sight he mistakes for an enterprising peddler of small wares. But the stranger has no thought of money; he has come to ask eagerly whether the bean flowers still bloom at home in Poland, and "if those small gray birds are still there in the winter." The author concludes with a passage possibly suggested by lines in Tolstoy's "Childhood" (Chapter XII):

> Much water has flowed down the cold Lena since that day, and not a few human tears have rolled down suffering cheeks. All this happened long ago. Yet in the silence of the night, at times of sleeplessness, the statuesque face of Baldyga, bearing the stigma of great sorrow, often rises before me, and invariably beside it Srul's yellow, drawn face, wet with tears. And when I gaze longer at that night-vision, many a time I seem to see the Jew's trembling, pale lips move, and I hear his low voice whisper: "O Jehovah, why art thou so unmerciful to one of Thy most faithful sons? . . ."

Similar in setting is the work of another victim of the Russian Government, Sieroszewski. This author, however, founds his stories not on the fortunes of the homesick Poles, but on those of the natives among whom their lot is cast; he tells of the tragic life of the Yakut bear-hunter Chachak, of a grim blood feud among the savage Chukchee, of the death of an honored Tungus patriarch, who, at the bidding of a shaman (priest), slays himself in order to abate a pestilence among the reindeer.

The remaining writers tell of life at home in Poland. Zeromski's talent is represented by a gloomy tale of a doctor, perishing of mental inanition in an obscure village, whose forgotten aspirations are for a moment roused to

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activity by a meeting with the girl whom he had once loved, now a schoolmistress in the same village. He finds her on her deathbed. After a vain effort to save her life, and a brief period of anguish at the loss of her, he sinks back into his former dull and ineffective existence. Two very brief poems in prose by the same author are of wonderful power: in one a young aristocrat, a religious enthusiast, preparing himself for the priesthood, is filled with a sense of the beauty and joy of human love by a glimpse through the church door of a peasant boy and girl; in the other two peasants are pictured digging mud in the evening twilight, their wages reduced from sixty to forty kopeks (twenty-two cents) a day, in a grim effort to preserve their wretched lives.

From the work of Reymont the translators have selected a sordid but effective story of village life: a group of peasants apply lynch law against a family of thieves. Prus (Glowacki), who has been known in English only by his long and tedious romance of ancient Egypt, "The Pharaoh and the Priest," here appears in a better vein in "The Returning Wave." The subject of the tale, in which the picture of social conditions is more impressive than the rather crude psychology, is the conflict between a German mill-owner and his Polish operatives.

The English of the translators is excellent, with only the very smallest traces of foreign idiom. It is to be hoped that these volumes are only the beginning of their work.

The Work of University Presses

Pepys on the Restoration Stage. By Helen McAfee. New Haven: Yale University Press. $3 net.

THIS is a work well conceived but incompetently executed. Miss McAfee's introduction, an exposition of Pepys's attitude towards the theatre, and of the extraordinary value of his comments, is, to be sure, pleasing, lucid, and correct. The make-up of the volume, too, is attractive, with its fine paper, large print, appropriate illustrations, and handsome binding. Any commercial publishing house that has no learned person on its staff might find satisfaction in the appearance of this volume; but the Yale University Press, and the Elizabethan Club of Yale University, under whose auspices it is issued, ought to have discovered that it falls lamentably short of respectable standards of scholarship.

The "foreword" of this study points out the usefulness of "a complete selection of all passages relating to the theatre and the drama in the decade Pepys covers"; but many pertinent passages (concerning Killegrew and Sedley, for example) are not given in the text. Despite the fact that the close connection of dramatists like Sir Robert Howard with politics and court life is historically significant, half-a-dozen passages affording glimpses of Howard's activities in those fields are unrecorded. In at least one instance (pp. 163-164) H. B. Wheatley's modification of the original is printed without any indication that the words are not Pepys's own; and in another (p. 153) the marks of omission are not set down. Some of the suppressions might be defended on grounds of decorum, though it is questionable whether a bowdlerizing tendency qualifies one as an editor of Restoration literature. The reasons for other omissions, especially in the group of citations concerning playwrights, are not discernible. Though two passages are given regarding Alexander Brome, whom Pepys knew as a song-writer rather than a dramatist, a passage regarding Mrs. Katharine Philips, whose translation of "Horace" Pepys saw performed, and whose heroic couplets had an influence upon serious drama, is left out. Two of the passages on Davenant are curtailed, and two are omitted. Miss McAfee says that we read in the Diary "two or three times" of Abraham Cowley, and she gives three notices of him, but leaves out two of equal interest. Unrecorded, too, is some of Pepys's information about Thomas Porter, Lord Orrery, and the Duke and Duchess of Newcastle. In short, the book lacks some passages pertaining to the subject, and the omissions are not made on any recognizable principle.

What is worse, the text is flagrantly inaccurate. The words of the original are misprinted, misspelled, changed, transposed, and omitted, with amazing carelessness. Lest it seem incredible that a University press can be justly charged with thus mangling a text, we shall cite a number of examples. The list may seem long, but it contains only a small portion of the entire catalogue of errors. Pepys's "lamented . . . as the best poet of our nation and as good a man" is rendered "lamented . . . as the best poet of our nation and as a good man." "It is as mean a thing" becomes "It is a mean thing"; "though most fine in clothes," "though most in fine clothes"; "yet is it," "yet it is"; "have long longed to see it," "have longed to see it"; "like not much in the play now," "like not much the play now"; "Mrs. Weaver's great part," "Mrs. Weaver's part"; "which pleases me well still," "which pleases me still"; "want of room," "lack of room"; "Harry the 5th," "Henry the 5th"; "there heard my wife read," "then heard my wife read"; "too mean a fellow to fight with," "too mean a fellow to fight him"; "Sir Charles Sidly is said to do," "Sir Charles Sedley is said to have done"; "Orry's," "Orrery's"; "1667-68," "1667"—and so on indefinitely. The punctuation is not that of the standard edition of the Diary, but is merely haphazard. Page 149 shows three misprints; page 174, one word omitted, one added, and two misspelled; and page 175, one word substituted, one added, and three misspelled. It is a very riot of slovenliness.

The annotations are as poor as the text. Caprice seems to govern them: some difficulties are treated at length (*e. g.*, p. 156), others are slurred, and on many points the most necessary information is not supplied. Miss McAfee justly declares that the time is ripe for a re-annotation of Pepys "in the light of recent researches as well as seventeenth-century sources," but in both respects her light is too often darkness visible. When Downes, Langbaine, Genest, and Wheatley do not illumine her way, she is likely to stand nonplussed. She appears to be unacquainted with some of the extant dramas that Pepys mentions: if she had consulted the plays themselves, she would have been able to comment instructively on such works as Greene's (not "Green's") "The Politician Cheated," and T. S.'s "Love à la Mode." She depends upon Hazlitt's account of "Polichinello," instead of examining "Wits, or Sport upon Sport" (1672), wherein the droll is to be found. One of the principal cruxes in Pepys—his recording "a translation out of French by Dryden called 'The Ladys à la Mode' "—she disposes of without noting that respectable authorities have conjectured (albeit not plausibly) that the play he saw was "The Mall, or the Modish Lovers," the dedication of which is signed J. D. Wheatley's notes, though written over twenty years ago, are sometimes better than Miss McAfee's. To omit

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such really significant passages as Shadwell's remarks on Etherege's "She Would if She Could," and the *locus classicus* in which Orrery's adoption of the heroic couplet is attributed to the French taste of Charles II (both given by Wheatley), is to betray a lack of appreciation of historical values.

The general incompetency of the notes, and the dimness with which "the light of recent researches" shines upon them, may be illustrated by the note regarding Dryden's "Sir Martin Mar-all." After recording Downes's allegation that the Duke of Newcastle aided Dryden in the composition of this comedy by providing him with a translation of Molière's "L'Etourdi," Miss McAfee merely says, "Langbaine and later dramatic historians ascribe this play to Dryden." The really important first-hand evidence for the authorship is unmentioned—namely, that none of the contemporary editions bears Newcastle's name, and that the first edition which gives any author's name gives Dryden's. Miss McAfee furthermore ignores the cogent reasons, lately advanced, why it is unlikely that Newcastle ever translated "L'Etourdi." Finally, the note on "Sir Martin Mar-all," in stating "L'Etourdi" as its only source, repeats an old mistake: in point of fact, Dryden borrowed less from Molière than from Quinault's "L'Amant Indiscret," from which he took the larger portion of the first three acts of his comedy. With similar superficiality, Shadwell's "Sullen Lovers" is described merely as "based upon" Molière's "Les Fâcheux," and the at least equally influential "Le Misanthrope" is not mentioned. In some instances, even when the source or main influence upon the plays is peculiarly important, as in the case of Etherege's works, the information is lacking. Only to a dilettante will these seem petty details; for they disclose a prevailing tendency to neglect both original evidence and modern knowledge. Better no attempt at all to state sources than so unsystematic a perpetuation, now of inaccuracy, and now of ignorance.

Throughout one is amazed at the editor's frequent failure to elucidate her text by the aid of the special studies in Restoration drama that have appeared since the time of her predecessor, Wheatley. Again and again the notes do not refer to most pertinent modern passages on the plays: under Shadwell's "Royal Shepherdess," for example, we find no reference to Miss Jeanette Marks's discussion of it in her "English Pastoral Drama." The bibliography, with its astounding omissions, confirms the impression of inexpertness given by the notes. To profess scholarly editorship of Pepys's comments without mastering and applying to one's text such works as those of Tupper on Davenant, of Noyes on Dryden, of Lohr on Flecknoe, and of Miles and Gillet on Molière in England, is nothing short of preposterously futile. The result, so far as Miss McAfee herself is concerned, is simply that she has lost the opportunity of making her book a very serviceable, indeed an indispensable, one for students of the English drama between 1660 and 1670—a corpus of unique contemporary comment illuminated by trustworthy modern research.

The blame for that neglect of opportunity should rest, however, not upon a novice in need of expert guidance, but upon those university authorities who evaded their responsibilities by not directing her zeal and interest towards really scholarly attainment. As a further indication of a dangerous tendency in university publication, it should be noted that in the *Yale Alumni Weekly* this book has been enthusiastically puffed by one of its sponsors, who boasts that it "never parades the processes of research," is "eminently readable as well as scholarly," can hardly be superseded, and contains "excellent notes and bibliography"! To coddle incompetence under the wing of complacency is surely not the way to nurse American scholarship. The university which happens to be the offender in this case is not the only one to stand in need of a sharp warning; a number of equally unworthy volumes have lately been published by the presses of other universities. A few more productions of this sort, and the name of a university will have as dubious a meaning on a title-page as on an article of commerce.

A Lady of the Nile

The Tomb of Senebtisi at Lisht. By Arthur C. Mace and Herbert E. Winlock. Publications of the Metropolitan Museum of Art Egyptian Expedition, edited by Albert M. Lythgoe. Paper, $8; half leather, $10.

As the beginning of what is certainly to prove one of the leading series of published archæological researches, the appearance of this sumptuous volume is an important event. For nearly a decade we have learned to look for the brief preliminary bulletins of the work of the Metropolitan Museum in Egypt under the able leadership of Albert M. Lythgoe, as very instructive reports from the field. The present volume crowns this nearly ten years' work as the inauguration of a series of exhaustively detailed accounts both of the course of the excavations in the field and of the objects which the excavations have disclosed.

The leading museum of the United States is not content to dispatch an expedition for the purpose of merely grubbing for showy museum pieces, after the inherited manner of not many years ago; nor to limit its field work to the making of so-called "discoveries" which are not to be published as modern archæological science requires. The field work of this expedition has been conducted after the most rigid scientific methods, as they have been developed in recent years; and this volume shows that the discoveries made are to be reported in the same careful scientific spirit. It is worthy of notice that such a controlling policy is entirely feasible for a museum which must likewise meet the requirements of public exhibition. Any one who has visited the wonderfully installed Egyptian collections of the Metropolitan Museum will certainly not come away with the impression that the needs of the visiting public have been sacrificed to the requirements of archæological science.

It will be seen then that the volume under discussion is part of a large and comprehensive plan of archæological work, which neglects neither science nor the public, but has considered the needs of all with real scientific statesmanship. The plan even includes, besides excavation, an effort to save some of the fast-perishing records of Egypt already above ground, especially the painted tomb-chapels of Thebes. Several of these are to be copied and published in facsimile plates, the first instalment of which, the tomb of Nakht, has now just appeared. This most laudable addition to the expedition's work of excavation will contribute essentially to the preservation and understanding of a little explored field of ancient life and art, which throws much light upon the early civilization of neighboring Asia, as well as upon the emerging civilization of Europe, in an age when Egypt was the leading contributor to the dawning culture of the European peoples.

The volume under review is devoted to the tomb of a

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lady of rank who was buried in the royal cemetery of Lisht, in the court of the Grand Vizier's tomb early in the Twelfth Dynasty, that is, towards 2000 B. C. The excavation of her tomb typically illustrates the irresistible fascination, the brooding charm investing such surviving glimpses into that remote life of the Nile dwellers, which was flourishing so exuberantly under the bright skies of Egypt forty centuries ago. When the modern excavators penetrated Senebtisi's subterranean burial chamber, they found her lying in the innermost of three cedar coffins, surrounded by mortuary furniture, chiefly pottery jars and dishes, which still contained remnants of food offerings, but included also a wig-box, a box for staves and magically potent sceptres, two little wooden shrines for sacred emblems, and a chest for the jars containing the perishable internal organs of the noble lady. These things had been disturbed by ancient tomb robbers, and the large outermost coffin stood askew where the marauders had pushed it in their efforts to obtain the gold leaf with which its exterior was adorned. Recessed into the stone floor were the wooden skid poles along which the ancient undertakers had slid the coffin into place on the day of burial. These were exposed to view when the tomb-robbers pushed the coffin aside, and showed the excavators where the coffin had originally stood.

While the body of the lady had suffered sadly from decay, it was still adorned with the jewelry with which she had been decked by her friends for burial. Embedded in a layer of resin at the head was a graceful chaplet of gold which had once encircled her head-dress; her wig was starred with golden rosettes; two collars and three necklaces of gold, silver, carnelian, green felspar, and lapis-lazuli, one with a very cleverly devised and perfectly wrought clasp of gold, hung at the neck and breast; two handsome girdles in beads of various colors, one with a golden name-plate in front bearing the lady's name, encircled her waist; while armlets and anklets of glaze and golden beads completed the sumptuous array with which this ancient beauty of the Nile passed into the shadowy realm of Osiris. By her side lay ten ceremonial staves, and a so-called fly-whisk, a kind of three-tailed whip, the only well-preserved example of this familiar but curious and little-understood instrument.

Few burials of this age have been found so capable of detailed record, and the methods of detailed observation and careful preservation practiced by the excavators as their task proceeded make this achievement of Mace and Winlock a model of how such field work should be done. Without methods like this in the field no such published record could be produced as we find in the volume under review. It furnishes a standard basis with which we shall be able to study, estimate, and compare future finds of the same general age. It is in many respects a compendium of burial practices of the Middle Kingdom.

The jewelry, which is very fully presented in color plates, photographs, and drawings, makes the volume of importance to all students of the goldsmith's art, and for the first time it will now be possible to reconstruct some of the still tentatively rearranged pieces among the famous Dahshur jewelry found by De Morgan and now in Cairo. The painstaking field method, which recovered the designs of Senebtisi's bead necklaces and girdles, is in noticeable contrast with the lack of such methods in the recovery of the Dahshur treasure. It is interesting to notice that, whereas the Dahshur princesses were decked for burial in solid gold, Senebtisi's relatives could often do no better for her than furnish paste overlaid with goldleaf. The coffins offer fine examples of the clever woodwork of the Egyptian craftsmen, especially in the matter of ingeniously secreted closure fastenings. The staves, the sceptres, the fly-whisk, and other instruments are elaborately compared with the known materials, which are carefully listed and, if the conclusions reached are not always convincing, the fault is not so much that of the treatment as that the problems attacked are some of them at present insoluble.

The principal contention of the volume is interesting and important. The earlier burials of Egypt reveal how wistfully the Egyptian clung to the material things of earthly life, and how difficult he found it to dissociate the life hereafter from such things. He therefore could not resist putting into the tomb an elaborate material equipment for the next world, including such things as model Nile boats and many groups of household servants wrought in the form of wooden models and engaged especially in the preparation of food; while the large rectangular coffin was painted throughout its interior with bright pictures of clothing, weapons, furniture, perfumes, ointments, etc., needed by the dead in the next world. Such burials as these have commonly been accepted as of the Middle Kingdom or Twelfth Dynasty type. Now the lady Senebtisi was not so equipped. She had no boat, no servants, no paintings on the interior of the coffin. Mace and Winlock call attention to the fact that the court burials of the same date at Dahshur show the same noticeable lack as that of Senebtisi. They therefore contend that the Senebtisi and Dahshur interments represent a "court type" of burial, while the tombs with the boats, servant models, etc., are a "provincial type." They contend further that the two types were not contemporary, but that the "provincial type" usually accepted as Middle Kingdom was in reality older, and should be dated under the Ninth and Tenth Dynasties, the Heracleopolitans.

To the reviewer the authors seem to have made a strong case. Moreover, their contention is corroborated by a further interesting fact of great importance which they have not adduced. The remarkable skeptics and misanthropes of the Middle Kingdom looked back upon the vast pyramid cemeteries of the Old Kingdom with complete disillusionment regarding material equipment for the hereafter, as they contemplated the ruined tombs of their ancestors:

> Behold the places thereof,
> Their walls are dismantled,
> Their places are no more,
> As if they had never been.
> . . . . . .
> Lo, no man taketh his goods with him,
> Yea, none returneth again that is gone thither.

A generation whose thinking men spoke like this might conceivably abandon the little wooden Nile boats, the wooden figures of the household servants, and the paintings on the interior of the coffin, even though a lady like Senebtisi might not be able to leave all her personal finery behind. It would seem, therefore, that the admirable volume which Mace and Winlock have given us furnishes further illustration of a remarkable stage in the intellectual and religious history of that gifted people among whom civilization first began.

With its eighty-five drawings in the text, thirty-three photogravure plates and three plates in color, the volume forms a considerable chapter in Egyptian archæology ad-

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mirably presented. In typography and physical make-up the sumptuous volume again illustrates the fine taste and high class of workmanship which we have learned to expect from the Metropolitan Museum. Both the Museum and the authors are to be congratulated on this very creditable beginning of their Egyptian series.

The Purification of Water

Water Supply. By William P. Mason. New York: John Wiley & Sons. $3.75 net.

THIS book is a revision, with many substantial additions, of one first published about twenty years ago. The explanatory parenthesis of the title, considered principally from a sanitary standpoint, is the index of the subject-matter rather than the main title. In fact, the book is altogether devoted to the sanitary features of public water supplies.

Modern requirements of the consumers of water have rapidly extended and developed during the past quarter of a century or more. Quantity may be the first consideration, but quality is so close a second that it usually controls the site or source from which the supply is drawn. Professor Mason has offered in this publication a comprehensive view of the sanitary features of a public supply. After setting forth some well-known but highly interesting features of ancient water supplies and irrigation systems he devotes more than a hundred pages, out of nearly five hundred, to the relations between drinking water and disease, the latter, of course, being restricted to water-borne diseases such as typhoid fever, cholera, and others of the same class.

It is frequently an open question in selecting municipal water supplies whether to accept a degree of pollution not excessive, combined with artificial purification, at a less cost, or to go farther and expend a greater sum in order to obtain an essentially unpolluted source. No arbitrary principle of procedure can be laid down for this part of the problem, but each case must be treated on its own merits. In the main it may be reasonably stated that there are two methods of artificial purification, one known as slow-sand filtration, the older of the two, and the other as rapid-sand filtration. Simply stated, the former system consists of so arranging layers of sand, from fine at the top to coarse sand or gravel at the bottom, as to permit the water to seep downwards at the rate of three million to five million gallons per acre per day of twenty-four hours. Rapid-sand filtration, as its name indicates, is a mechanical arrangement of a greater or less number of small filter beds, with the graded sand and gravel usually contained in closed tanks so that the water is forced through the stratified filtering material under pressure and at a much more rapid rate of perhaps one hundred million gallons or more per acre per day. A careful reading of the chapter devoted to Artificial Purification of Water will give even a layman a satisfactory working knowledge of the features of the two systems.

The use of these artificial purifying agents is not necessarily confined to waters which have been to some extent subjected to pollution. With the cultivation of a better taste in the public for its water supplies and with a clearer appreciation of the many obscure sources of contamination that are possible, the public as a whole is approaching a point where it will consider it imperative to subject all public water supplies, of whatever character, to purification by filtration.

The natural purification of water, including the effect of filtration through the soil, the action of sunlight, the natural aeration of streams, freezing, and other processes of nature, is set forth in a clear and effective manner so as to convey a correct impression of its actual value. Similar observations may be made in connection with rain, ice, and snow. In this part of the book the sanitary effect of freezing, especially in its relation to the life or death of bacteria, including typhoid bacilli, is fully indicated.

River and other stream waters, stored water, including lake water, as well as that of artificial reservoirs, and ground water, are treated in their various potable and sanitary relations in a manner to indicate their availability for public water supplies at the present time. The author properly devotes a relatively large amount of space to this important part of his subject.

Finally, the question of water required per head of population per day is set forth by the aid of statistics obtained in connection with both American and foreign cities. This variable quantity is shown to be dependent upon a variety of influences, such as effect of meters in preventing waste, the general habits of the people in the community served, public and manufacturing uses. It is not unlikely that, as the country becomes more densely populated, the public supply may be divided into potable water of the highest sanitary quality, and that for public and manufacturing uses not requiring so high a degree of sanitary excellence.

Notes

PUBLICATION of "The Flag," by Homer Greene, is announced for August 18 by George W. Jacobs & Company, of Philadelphia.

E. P. Dutton & Company announce the forthcoming publication of an English translation of Hermann Fernau's "The Coming Democracy."

The following volumes will be published to-morrow by John Lane Company: "The Rebirth of Russia," by Isaac F. Marcosson; "Poems of Charles Warren Stoddard," collected by Ina Coolbrith and edited by Thomas Walsh, and "The Studio Yearbook for 1917."

COMPILED by Prof. G. B. Woods, "English Poetry and Prose of the Romantic Movement" (Scott, Foresman & Co.) should find favor with students and professors of English. It aims to provide all the material necessary, with the exception of the novel, for the study of the English Romantic Movement; and so far as a college course is concerned, it hits very near the mark. It contains 1,432 large pages printed in double columns in good type on thin yet almost perfectly opaque paper. The more important writers receive space equivalent to a fair-sized volume each: Coleridge, 70 pages; Wordsworth, 100 pages; Keats, 110 pages; Shelley, 124 pages; Byron, 142 pages, etc. There is also liberal representation for secondary figures and minor lights: Landor has 40 pages, Hazlitt 36, Crabbe 10, Blake 25 poems, Hood 19 poems, Beddoes 13 poems, etc. A special feature of the selections is the inclusion of a considerable amount of significant prose to which the student has not ordinarily easy access except on the reference shelf; for

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examples, the Preface to Ramsay's "Evergreen," a group of Gray's letters, a passage from Warton's "Observations on the Fairy Queen," two of Hurd's "Letters on Chivalry and Romance," extracts from Godwin's "Political Justice," and criticisms by Jeffrey and Croker. In conclusion there are 232 pages of notes and bibliographies, including works on the movement and works of and on the individual authors. The appended matter has been as diligently brought together and as intelligently arranged as the main course of reading. An extraordinarily useful and usable volume.

THOSE in charge of Samuel Butler's reputation wisely call attention to the "Note-Books" as his meatiest volume. It is neither a finished work of art nor an ingenuous piece of self-revelation; but it gives the tang of his personality, and it presents in fairly compact form his comment upon man, morality, memory and design, mind and matter, pictures, books, music, cash, religion, travel, truth, translation, etc. Butler watched over his mental activities with a memorandum book in his hand; he recorded his observations and his "happy thoughts" as he came upon them; he tried their effect in conversation; he rewrote them; he drew upon his store for his published books; he collected and indexed them. After his death, his friend Henry Festing Jones sorted and rearranged and expurgated them, and brought them out in 1912. Dutton republishes the volume ($2 net) with a brief appreciative introduction by Francis Hackett. Mr. Hackett makes no extravagant claims for Butler. What he values in the man is his power of thinking for himself—an astonishing endowment for a man who flourished in the nineteenth century. Thinking for one's self, however, is now quite the thing among the younger set; consequently Butler is "in." A list of his salient characteristics would describe accurately enough the aspirations of the rosy and sanguine wing of contemporary thought. He is intensely self-conscious, observant, sensual, cynical, experimental, impudent, paradoxical, and egotistical. His set method of discovering wisdom is to beat the bushes on the wrong side of the fence. "When I have turned a proposition inside out," he says, "put it to stand on its head, and shaken it, I have often been surprised to find how much came out of it." He has the vices of habitual paradoxers—he prizes his private crotchets above the consensus of mankind, and he would rather be startling than President. "I am," he declares, "the *enfant terrible* of literature and science. If I cannot, and I know I cannot, get the literary and scientific bigwigs to give me a shilling, I can, and I know I can, heave bricks in the middle of them." The admirers of Butler doubtless relish this candid self-knowledge; but the passage is not in the temper of a first-rate mind. There is a note in it of wilful hardness, of wilful vulgarity, which repels certain old-fashioned minds and helps them to understand why Butler had to wait till our time to come into his own.

THE "Oxford University Handbook" for 1914, with additions bringing it up to the present year, has been received. Two statements in the "Addenda" tell the story of what is happening: "Almost all the British undergraduates who would otherwise have been in residence are now absent on military service"; and, "Almost all University Prizes and Scholarships have been suspended during the War." Will the University, mother of us all, return to her ancient and tried system of educating after the war, with what modification of method may be necessary, or will she, like the rest of the world, be led into the mad search for "efficiency," and so, teaching men to control the forces of nature, forget to teach men to control themselves? It is a question that must be agitating the breast of many an Oxonian to-day.

WE have, in fact, the answer of a learned Oxonian to this question. In his "Higher Education and the War" (Macmillan; $1.50) Prof. John Burnet, now dean of the faculty of arts in the University of St. Andrews, deals primarily with the conditions of education in Scotland, but his observations bear none the less on his own University, Oxford, and indeed on our American institutions, to which he makes frequent reference. In his first chapters Professor Burnet makes clear the distinction between German *Kultur* and humanism. The former, as practically directing education, aims at making specialists serviceable to the state, the latter aims at developing the full and perfect man. Not the least valuable part of the treatise is the lucid description of the actual scheme of studies in the German higher schools and universities, and the impartial analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of the system, with reference to the systems prevailing in Scotland and England. Professor Burnet thinks highly of the American division of institutions into elementary school, high school, college, and university. This division, he thinks, with the exception of the mistake of beginning work in the high school two years too late, corresponds admirably with the progressive psychological stages of youth. He pleads strongly for the preservation of the college as distinct from high school and university, and his arguments for the humanities, while neither narrow nor exaggerated, are extremely cogent. The book, as a whole, deserves wide reading.

WITH this treatise from abroad should be read Prof. Paul Shorey's two *Atlantic* essays on "The Assault on Humanism," which are now published by the Atlantic Monthly Co. in an attractive little volume (60 cents). The main virtue of Professor Shorey's method is the consummate skill with which he carries the warfare into the camp of the enemy. Any one familiar with his powers of irony and sarcasm need not be told that he sets forth the illogical procedure and dishonest assumptions of the present-day pedagogues in a way to cause inextinguishable laughter on the slopes of Parnassus.

RETURNING to England and to Oxford, we may note the appearance of a biography which will be read with attentive interest by all who have at heart the intrinsic value of the scholar's life—the memoir of "Ingram Bywater" (Oxford University Press; $3 net), by William Walrond Jackson. The famous editor of Heraclitus and Aristotle was a notable example of the new, partly Germanized, type of scholarship now forcing its way into the English universities. His first concern was with text and tradition, and in his meticulous carefulness and exacting thoroughness, with his comparative (by no means absolute) indifference to the human message of the authors he was treating, he formed the exact contrary to Jowett. Some would say "complement" rather than "contrary," but it is a question whether these two types of scholarship, or two such contrasts in any walk of life, really do tend to com-

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plement each other and produce a true humanism, as much as they tend to divided aims and distraction of mind. The problem for the higher scholarship to-day is to produce the man who in himself shall possess the conscientious exactness of a Bywater and the human interest of a Jowett—a problem which as yet shows little promise of solution. But, apart from the question of philological methods, Bywater was a man of bountiful nature and attractive personality. There is something sound and stimulating in the fellowship of one who seems never to have suffered from the disease so rife to-day among university men—the feeling of despondency over the value of scholarship in and for itself and over the intrinsic dignity of the scholar's life.

LORD CURZON'S generalization (*pace* the Chinese), that the dislike of precise arrangements is typical of the Oriental mind, is recalled by reading G. E. Hubbard's "From the Gulf to Ararat" (Dutton; $3.50 net). The author was secretary of the delimitation commission appointed by the British to coöperate with the Russians, Turks, and Persians in the settlement of a dispute between Turkey and Persia which had lasted from 1842. Mr. Hubbard's sketch of the abortive efforts of previous commissions to decide how much of this nebulous strip, twenty-five miles in breadth, belonged to Turk or Persian, affords proof of Lord Curzon's remark. When asked whether his grazing field belonged to Shah or Sultan, the nomad replied, "To Allah," and the commissions have always found the much-desired evidence of graybeards of the same diplomatic nature. It was the commanding hand that the British and Russians have recently attained in regard to the spheres of influence in Persia which finally brought Turkey to consider a practical issue to the controversy. In brief, we may note that the accidental discovery of a *Carte Identique*, inherited from the 1869 commission, in a dusty corner of the British Consulate at Teheran was of prime importance, since the Turkish copy had been done away with at Constantinople by the late Sultan's secretary. It is a pleasure, however, to follow Mr. Hubbard's interests, which lay outside the tedious business of demarcating. Everywhere his observations of a region and its races unfamiliar to the West are rewarding. Fauna, flora, and an excellent eye for landscape and local color are at our disposal. Nowhere have we seen in recent books the same admiration for the Kurds, and though the author was in the end wounded by a marauding Kurd's bullet, yet we must remember that the Commission had barely ended its labors near Ararat when the Russian members received word of the advent of war. But immediately after the Commission departed, the Turk instigated these Kurds to the unspeakable atrocities on the Armenians and Syrians of this region that can never be forgotten. The reader can also form a good idea of the difficult terrain traversed by the British during the Mesopotamian campaign through Mr. Hubbard's philosophic record of discomfort in this region. His knowledge of Arabic and Persian was evidently sufficient to enable him to appreciate the various clans and tribes along the route. Their genius for picturesque nomenclature is famous. Mr. Hubbard found that snipe was known as "The Father of Long Noses," a certain craggy hill as "The Tearer of Pants," while a somewhat corpulent Britisher was invariably addressed as "The Father of Bellies." The primitive, nomad life of most of these peoples is attractively described, and the scourge of fleas that once a year literally drives them to abandon their huts and take to the mountains and woods frequently visited the Commission. There are few glimpses of the Russian and less of the Turkish and Persian members of the Commission, but Mr. Hubbard made no mistake in presenting his story in its present attractive form.

IN the closer intellectual, social, and political relationship called up by the war between East and West, one of the most important factors is the scholarship displayed by native writers in a furtherance of this understanding. Hitherto the majority of serious studies dealing with the life and economies of the people of India have come from the valuable fund of experience and observation accumulated by the British official class, especially by past and present members of that distinguished body, the Indian Civil Service. But the faculties of India's universities and colleges are making notable contributions, and Prof. Radhakamal Mukerjee's "The Foundations of Indian Economics" (Longmans, Green; $3 net) is a worthy example. Of traditional societies in the Orient to-day, India's complex castes and septs, permeating a vast agrarian population whose density averages 200 persons per square mile, alone present an unbroken, unleavened front to the spirit of change in the new East. Intensive surveys by the British are still being made, but it is to the native scholars of India that they must turn for coöperation in this tremendous task. Professor Mukerjee has performed a great service in taking stock of the vestigial remains of India's ancient economies as they survive to-day in the traditional arts and crafts preserved by the universal caste and guild

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systems. He is at considerable pains to show the effect of Western institutions on these survivals, some of which are becoming extinct, while others are being modified by the introduction of Western machinery and by the increasing amount of European imports. It is the old story of disintegration, of the growing centralization of an essentially agrarian population. But Professor Mukerjee does not predict a precipitate adoption of Western "progress" such as took place in Japan. His faith in the family as an economic unit fortified by caste leads him to believe in the development of a new economic life that must continue to express the indigenous character and genius of India's manifold races. Most illuminating is the careful description and illustration of the various hereditary trades and their processes of production and distribution; they form an enlightening platform for a closer acquaintance with the fascinating, and frequently confusing, ethnology. Though the majority of the studies are confined to adherents of Hinduism, and to those Mohammedans scattered through Bengal, the Central Provinces, and Madras, yet it is among the Hindus that the survivals of custom and practice have been hereditary and, because of the peculiar absorbing power of Hinduism, most varied. It is to be hoped that a similar survey of Mussulman economy, frankly showing the accretions from Hindu sources, will be forthcoming from a Moslem pen.

A REFERENCE year book of information upon current events which fills a certain gap appears in the "Information Annual: 1916," published by the Cumulative Digest Corporation (New York; $4). Year books in considerable number we now have, of course, but this is unique in that it follows the news as given in the daily papers upon a great variety of topics with only so much of editorial digestion as is required by brevity and the exclusion of extraneous and repetitious matter. It owes its special character to the fact that its contents appear first as a simple monthly *précis* of the press dispatches, and that the year book is compiled from the twelve separate issues by a regrouping of entries without much alteration of text. A much larger number of topics are treated than in the excellent American Year Book or New International Year Book; the annual has the nature of an edition of the index of the New York *Times* with brief text under each entry instead of reference to the newspaper files, though it is not so inclusive. Its defects are many and evident. It contains no information except that which appears in the news columns of the press, it is not well written, and it suffers much from incoherence. In the treatment of extended subjects, as the war, the effect is of a succession of disconnected items, not of a readable, consecutive narrative.

EIGHT religious sects which have had a part in the life of New England, the Congregationalists, Unitarians, Baptists, Quakers, Episcopalians, Methodists, Universalists, and Swedenborgians, are dealt with in a series of popular lectures published by the Harvard University Press—"The Religious History of New England," King's Chapel Lectures, by John Winthrop Platner, William W. Fenn, George E. Horr, Rufus M. Jones, George Hodges, William E. Huntington, John Coleman Adams, William L. Worcester. It is a pity that in a volume thus entitled the Roman Catholics should not have a place, and the Christian Scientists as well. The title of the volume indeed is hardly justified by its contents, for it contains denominational history only and not the general religious history of New England, except for the earliest days when there was nothing but Congregationalism there. Having filed this caveat it is only right to say that the limited purpose of the series is admirably fulfilled. The treatment of the several denominations, being in each case by an adherent, is sympathetic but as a rule entirely fair, and only now and then unduly laudatory. The closing sentences of the lecture on the Quakers furnish a capital example of discriminating criticism.

> But while they have thus, like John the Baptist, been forerunners in great causes and have been loud voices crying in the wilderness, they have not known how to grow and expand with the growing world. They have shown a tendency to be overinterested in themselves, to spend their energies on the preservation of their own peculiarities and to treat their discoveries as "sacred principles" to be held and guarded rather than as truths to be propagated and risked in the stern siftings of evolving society. If they once more return to the robust spirit of their founders and gain again the braver temper of these early innovators they may have even yet a new era of life.

As is fitting, the Congregationalists receive the most extended notice, and the four lectures devoted to them traverse the familiar ground in an interesting and informing way. In the lecture on the Unitarians occurs the following illuminating passage: "Thus it becomes evident that the course of Unitarian thought presents one of the most remarkable curves in all theological history. It began as a human protest against Calvinism with its immoral God and its denial of human worth and freedom, only to swing round into a Calvinism of immanence where the goodness of God and the freedom of man must again be doubted if not denied. From Edwards to Emerson, from the Calvinism of transcendence to the Calvinism of immanence—that was the spiral curve of progress. . . ." It should be added that here American Unitarianism does not stand alone. It is the typical character of the movement in this as in many other respects that makes it so interesting to the historian of religious thought. There is space only to add that Dean Hodges succeeds in introducing an unusual amount of human interest into his lectures on the Episcopalians. In concluding his account of a typical controversy between high and low churchmen he playfully remarks: "Each side exhibited that perseverance of the saints which in sinners is called obstinacy."

ONE of the few books of its kind, and the first dealing with the South, Prof. Edgar W. Knight's "Public School Education in North Carolina" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.50 net) is a useful historical study in American education. Despite its brevity—it covers, in less than four hundred pages, the entire stretch from the days of the Lords Proprietors to "the Future"—it contains a large amount of information, statistical and other, which the author presents in a style notable for directness and dryness. The most important epoch is, of course, that beginning with the return of "home rule" after the dismal Reconstruction days and leading up to the present—an epoch of disheartening struggle upward in the face of nearly impregnable obstacles now at last rapidly being overcome, so rapidly, indeed, that the annual progress is plainly visible. Through enabling the school movement to understand itself better, this historical survey should itself play a part in that progress, and in the progress of Southern education generally.

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Sinews of War

(Not in the thunder, but in the still, small voice.)

GUNS! guns! guns! guns! thousands and thousands of guns!
Shell and shrapnel, bullets, projectiles, measured by myriad tons;
Bringers of famine and horror and pain on the wings of their deadening roar,
That fills the miles of the wasted land with the mutter and menace of war:
But here on the other side of the world, silent, beautiful, sweet,
Over the sun-warmed face of the valley brightens the green of the wheat.

Ships! ships! ships! ships! hiding by night and by day,
Or guarding transports and cargo-boats on their grim and anxious way;
For down below in the cold, salt deep is the terror that strikes unseen,
The latest-begotten of war and death, fear's herald, the submarine:
But here, where over the sea of the sky the white cloud-cruisers fleet,
Where the inland winds are unperturbed, brightens the green of the wheat.

Men! men! men! men! marching and fighting and dead,
Dreaming of honor and following on where loyalty glimmers ahead;
Born of women, but sons of God, the hope of the travailing world,
Forged like common ore in the furnace and into the conflict hurled:
But here where the quiet hills at dawn are kissed by the sun's light feet,
Where the meadow-lark sings for the joy of life, brightens the green of the wheat.

IRENE P. MCKEEHAN

What the Men Will Wear

AT first sight, the revolution in Russia has failed of its full possible achievement. It has set the royal crowns a-tottering all over the world, but it has apparently left unshaken the silk hat of statesmanship. The consumption of what the average citizen describes as his "Sunday tile" has never been so high as during these last few months, when foreign missions have wended their way from the Battery to City Hall. With several hundred citizens drafted for the various Mayor's committees to do our visitors honor, this war has brought, along with a searching of hearts, an intensive searching of closets and trunks and garrets for that distinctive crown of civilian creation, the silk topper. Like half-pay officers brought forth by the war from retirement, tall hats of ancient vintage have emerged to make the world safe for democracy. This might all be well enough for French missions or British or Italian. But when one thought of Russia cutting loose from all her past, Russia casting down all the monuments of authority, Siberian convicts in the place of Ministers of State, private soldiers imprisoning corps commanders, Catherine Breshkovsky returning from prison in the Imperial train, high-school students building the foundations of a new world, peasants in Congress laying down the law to rulers and diplomatists of the nations—when one saw this general putting down of the mighty from their seats and exalting those of low degree, it seemed inevitable that along with the reality of power would go its sacred paraphernalia. It was something of a shock, therefore, to see the Ambassador of the new Russia riding up Broadway under a silk hat. Just what one expected him to wear is hard to say. Perhaps not the red Phrygian cap of liberty. Yet what a symbol it would have been if Professor Bakhmetev had greeted Mr. Mitchel in the well-known Tolstoy costume, a peasant's blouse, homespun trousers, bare-headed, and barefoot!

It is true that a fair case may be made out for the top-hat as the sign-post of democracy. Though it soars, yet it levels. Its universal appeal would be attested by its popularity with Eton boys, the Cook County Marching Club, and the natives of Ujiji, whose entrance into the clothes of civilization begins with the head and works slowly down from precedent to precedent. Tammany Hall, for example, might point out that in the good old days of real democracy the silk hat cast its radiance over the masses on all solemn public occasions, whereas with the capture of the city by aristocrats and reactionaries the rôle of the silk hat in election campaigns has seriously declined. Nevertheless, that would only be special pleading. We know it as a fact that silk hats and social caste go together. The London clerk sports the tall crown above his shiny serge as a sign of distinction from the laboring masses. When the late Mr. Will Thorne took his place in the House of Commons from a working-class constituency, his appearance at St. Stephen's in a plain bowler made Englishmen wonder whether the imperial heritage of Blake and Nelson was approaching its doom; and only the fact that England has no written Constitution made the Will Thorne derby legal. We cannot get away from the fact that, judging by appearances, the silk hat is still aloft amidst the swirling tides of change. Beneath the bludgeonings of chance its crest may be somewhat worn around the brim and the sweat-band, but it is unbowed.

But that is only to take the short view of things. We are still too near to the Russian revolution to appraise its ultimate results. Yet that the forces let loose at Petrograd are already at work is perceptible if we look nearer home. The first rumblings of the storm come from Oklahoma, whose Governor refused to put on the statutory silk hat and black cutaway in honor of the Belgian Mission, insisting on a Palm Beach suit and a straw hat. Perhaps it is not all Petrograd. The weather may be partly responsible; in which case New Russia and her new ally, General Summer, are at work for a restatement of war aims, for a new internationalism to be framed by men in alpines and golf caps instead of plumed tricornes and tall hats. What if several hundred years of history look down upon us from the crest of the silk tile? We are remaking history, and one more tradition on the garbage pile does not matter. It will be a wrench, no doubt. There will even be a loss. It is for us to supply some substitute for the silk hat as a bond of internationalism. Nations that have little else in common have subscribed to the recognized headgear of

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diplomacy. Backward nations gravitate in that direction, like China, which discards the queue and peacock feather and puts on a silk hat when it desires to negotiate with Japan about running railways through ancient burial grounds. It will be a strain not to see President Poincaré exploring the first-line trenches in a high crown, or the representatives of martyred Belgium pleading their case in the conventional garb. Yet the world can be won over in time. The only men who will miss the silk hat will perhaps be the diplomats when they need something to talk through.

Notes from the Capital

Lyman Abbott

IT is a not infrequent remark in Washington that the city has seen little recently of Dr. Lyman Abbott, who used to put in an appearance whenever public affairs had taken any particularly striking turn. One reason for the change may be promptly assigned—Dr. Abbott's age, which has passed the point at which needless railway journeys are a joy. Yet few persons, looking at him for the first time, would guess that the total of years to his credit is within a fraction of eighty-two. His activity of mind and body is the more astonishing when it is remembered that he has never been—at least for the quarter-century of my acquaintance with him—a robust man. His constitution seems to have a rubber-like or leathery quality, which is sometimes better than iron, for it bends before attacks, and comes back automatically to the normal when the hostile force has spent itself and gone its way. Any one with a less elastic make-up than his must have succumbed to the weight of work and responsibility which has hung upon him through the greater part of his career.

Even many of his best friends are unaware that Dr. Abbott began life as a lawyer, but such is the fact. Whether the view he obtained in that profession of the moral weaknesses of mankind turned his face towards the ministry, I cannot say; perhaps there was something subtle in the effect of wearing the given name of the first great clerical light of the Beecher family. At any rate, he was soon graduated from the bar into the pulpit, taking for his initial charge a Congregational church in a small Indiana town, just as his fellow-New Englander, Lyman Beecher's most famous son, had done before him. Like Henry Ward Beecher, also, he presently drifted eastward, settling in New York, where he was a good deal in Beecher's company and in due course helped start the *Christian Union,* since renamed the *Outlook,* in opposition to the *Independent,* the organ of the wing of Beecher's congregation who had severed relations with their pastor. Considering their intimacy and Beecher's notable idiosyncrasies of creed and conduct, it is not difficult to understand Abbott's changes of attitude towards sundry religious questions—changes so vital that probably no recognized ecclesiastical body to-day would claim him as a representative member or stamp his teachings with the seal of its unqualified approval; and we may accept his call to succeed Beecher in the pastorate of Plymouth Church as merely the climax of a series of coincidences. Long before he undertook this charge, the Plymouth congregation had been set, by the great mass of the public, in a class by itself, because of Beecher's unwillingness to let his mind be fettered by the laws or the philosophy of even the most saintly of his fellowmen.

Another and very potent reason why Washington has ceased to offer the same charm to Dr. Abbott as of old is that the man who was for him the head and centre of its attraction no longer lives there. Abbott was one of the dozen counsellors whom President Roosevelt used to summon for a heart-to-heart talk when he was contemplating some important new move, or considering how best to wind up an old one. Neither advancing years nor temporary inconvenience impeded the Doctor's response when such a call came. The human types embodied by the two men were so antagonistic as to justify a wonder what pleasure they could find in each other's society, or why the younger man should crave an expression of the elder's judgment on a step he was about to take. But it was Roosevelt's habit to invite opposition, and stretch his intellectual muscles by wrestling with it, while Abbott's pliancy of mind was such that his opposition at the outset was ready to reverse itself and become an equally cordial support if his adversary's reasoning proved too much for his own. Moreover, like a judicious sportsman, Roosevelt preferred to make his preparations in advance for whatever outcome fate had in store for him. If what he had made up his mind to do threatened to be unpopular, some of its ill results might be reduced in harmfulness by having the public mind made ready for it by skilful "feelers" in the form of preliminary guesses and suggestions; and the *Outlook* had an editorial bent for balancing the pros and cons on any question in a fashion that left the reader's opinion unsettled and disposed to accept the final decision as a relief, whichever way it might fall.

Working together in this manner, the pair made an unusually strong team; and for a time after Roosevelt's retirement from the Presidency, when his nominal occupation was that of Contributing Editor of the *Outlook,* his ideas undoubtedly received more than ordinary weight in the managerial conclaves whenever the matters under discussion were those which had come within his ken while in office. But when he leaped the bounds of his special field as a publicist and branched into other lines like literary criticism or moral philosophy, he was likely at any moment to bring up with a hard bump against the Editor-in-Chief, who had been handling these topics all his life, had his own large public always listening for his voice, and had no notion of being overshadowed by any junior, however personally distinguished. Discerning readers of the magazine used to find a good deal of entertainment in these occasional clashes, as where both men let their pens loose simultaneously on the late Count Tolstoy, Roosevelt emphatically proclaiming him a great novelist but a bad moralist, while Abbott, with equal assurance, pronounced him a poor novelist but a great moralist.

Dr. Abbott is of medium height and spare, frail build. His face, which is that of a scholar and thinker, is long and narrow, these characteristics being accentuated by a high forehead with prominent temples, and a beard which reaches to his first shirt-stud and is thin enough to reveal his collar and cravat between its strands. The tone of his hair and beard is gray, yet enough of the original coloring remains to save it from the appearance of great age. His voice is low and far from strong in conversation, though his moderateness and precision of speech give it a pretty good carrying quality on the platform. TATTLER

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Church Architecture

HOLLAND has recently paid homage to two of her greatest nineteenth-century artists, Johannes Bosboom and Dr. P. J. H. Cuypers, memorable both for their life-long devotion to church architecture. But the materials they used for their art differed greatly: Dr. Cuypers raised his churches of brick and mortar. Bosboom built them with his brush on canvas, one the creator of a neo-Gothic architecture, the other a re-creator of the Gothic remains of bygone centuries. Bosboom was born in 1817, and his centenary was quietly commemorated at The Hague by the unveiling of a memorial tablet over the door of the house where he first saw the light. After the war, Baedeker and Murray will guide foreign devotees of art to this fresh place of pilgrimage, for the name of Bosboom is more familiar to the non-Dutch world than that of Cuypers. His pictures and his unrivalled water-colors are scattered all over Europe and the United States, and have carried his fame into drawing-rooms, where the first word about Cuypers's art is yet to be spoken. Such is the good fortune of the painting craft. However, this portability of the artist's work and name may sometimes cause damage to both. The picture, once sold, is taken out of reach of the artist's control. It may come to grief in the clash of unharmonious surroundings, an amateur's collection of objects of art from various climes and ages, each a beauty in its kind, but out of place in that cosmopolitan setting. The architect's works are, by their immobility, exempt from these dangers. He decides the setting for his art, and the amateur must travel to enjoy its beauty where the artist has chosen. What Goethe figuratively said of the poet:

> Wer den Dichter will versteh'n,
> Muss in Dichters Lande geh'n

is true to the letter with respect to the architect. Thus it will take a few generations of travellers before Dr. Cuypers will be known abroad as Bosboom's equal, if not his master.

The painter died in 1891, the architect is still among the living. His ninetieth birthday on May 16 was a national event. The old town of Roermond, in the province of Limburg, was that day astir with a crowd of admirers who, from all parts of the country, had come to pay homage to the great old man. Roermond is his birthplace and had been his lifelong residence, and the town is proud of its greatest son. When, in 1848 he had won the prix d'excellence at the Antwerp Academy, the town, on his return, received him with flags and music and enthusiastic speeches. From that day, until the recent and more dignified ceremony in honor of the nonagenarian, his life has been one restless activity; over a hundred churches, from the humblest village chapel to the imposing cathedral, and, best known of all, the Rijks-Museum in Amsterdam, bear eloquent witness to the productive energy of this master genius. Alone and unsupported, often baffled by indifference or dull conservatism, ugly vices of a time which had lost all love and understanding of architectural beauty and which let a horde of vulgar jerry-builders degrade the noble craft to a base and speculative business, Cuypers by dint of enthusiasm and faith in his high calling raised it anew to the plane of beauty which is its proper sphere.

Dutch Roman Catholicism sees in him the embodiment of its own revival. From a disregarded, because unproductive, minority, it rose, during Cuypers's lifetime, to the importance of a vital force capable of making its influence felt in the sphere of politics and that of art and literature. And Cuypers's architecture, reconciling mediæval traditions to the practical demands of modern life, is, to his co-religionists, the visualization of their reëstablished mediæval church, come to its rights again after three centuries of Calvinist supremacy. The art of Bosboom, the Protestant, seems to reflect the liberalism of his generation, which voluntarily removed all barriers to this Roman revival. What the sixteenth-century iconoclasts had left of mediæval architecture was reverently studied by the artist; it was the elegant curve, the mighty line of arched window and vault that impressed him most, and the hazy, transparent atmosphere of the dimly lit aisle. But he gives no attention to decorative detail. Little of that remained in the whitewashed churches where Bosboom painted. Still, he must have missed the warm colors of stained window-panes and frescoed walls, the grotesque sculpture in wood and stone that once adorned those old churches before the Calvinists took possession of them. And this regret for beauty spoilt must have brought home to him the wrong done by the early reformers in despoiling the Catholics of their places of worship, a wrong for which no better reparation could be made than by the removal of all obstacles that barred the free development of long suppressed Catholic energies. The spires of Dr. Cuypers's churches, that raise their crosses in towns and villages all over the country, are the best justification of this wise and liberal policy.

Mostly building, on a large scale, for communal purposes, Dr. Cuypers naturally takes a strong and active interest in the life of the nation. He knows his craft in all its details, and personally executed the designs for the smallest ornaments. But this intense concentration on his art has not estranged him from the community whose higher cravings his art is to satisfy. "The architects of the two generations that came after him," writes one of these, "were dilettantes either in their craft or in life, but Cuypers is a consummate master in both spheres." That may be the secret of his wonderful vitality. For Cuypers, in spite of his ninety years, is still young in activity. The worshipper of art for art's sake, when growing in years, finds no rejuvenating magic in his idol, whose seeming life was nothing but the reflex of his own young enthusiasm. But Cuypers, loving his art for life's sake, has never lost touch with the eternal source of all true art. To love art is to love life, and to be a great artist is to be a great man of the world.

Old age has not dulled him into a stoical spectator of this greatest of all outrages on life, the war. His was one of the first voices raised in Holland to protest against the devastations in Belgium. The German militarist theory which stridently proclaims that one soldier's life is more precious than the most beautiful cathedral must have struck him as abominable blasphemy. When the Netherland section of the "League of Neutral Countries" was constituted, Dr. Cuypers was not deterred by a long and tiring railway journey from being present at its first meeting in Amsterdam. And his acceptance, then and there, of the section's honorary presidency, was his public protest against a militarism that violated what, all his long and noble life, he had held most sacred.

A. J. BARNOUW

The Hague, June 10

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Getting in the Crops

GOVERNMENT estimates having made us hopeful of one of the largest crops recorded, assurance is needed only of continued good weather and of labor sufficient to harvest every bushel of wheat and ton of hay. Already reports state that the problem of farm labor is not proving insoluble. The wheat harvest is ended as far north as the northern line of Missouri and Kansas, and the Southwest has complained of no real shortage of men. The office of the Federal Labor Department at Kansas City announces that no place in the central wheat States has suffered for lack of help, and this is borne out by State officials and Middle Western newspapers. The Kansas City office has distributed 2,300 men and is helping move northward the corps of wheat harvesters that has finished in Oklahoma, Kansas, and Missouri. State labor departments or offices for Kansas, Missouri, and Iowa declare that, taking the harvest as a whole, only local shortages will have existed. Nebraska asks for only 2,000 men, and South Dakota for 300. The St. Joseph *News* declares that in Missouri only some central and southwestern counties have "complained of scarcity of help and high wages demanded." The Emporia *Gazette* reports that in its section "most of the farmers said they had plenty of help to complete the harvest." Illinois newspapers report men leaving the section-gangs of the railways and like work to help harvest. Undoubtedly, the deficiency in the wheat crop, which has always demanded the greatest emergency supply of labor, is partly responsible for the ease with which the situation has been met.

The evidence is plain that one reason for the sufficiency of hands is the high wages paid. In Illinois farmers in many places are paying $3.50 to $4 a day and board to efficient men. The Dakota farmers who are bargaining with the Agricultural Workers' Union of the Middle West are asked $4 a day and board, and the Commissioner of Labor, John Hagan, does not regard this as much too high. The price of wheat is now well over $2 a bushel, and the farmers, expecting it to rise, can meet high wage-demands. California's Commissioner of Labor, John P. McLaughlin, recently issued a statement that on the Coast the deficiency in farm labor was attributable to the low farm pay. At the California public employment bureaus over 1,000 men were applying for work daily, and the farmer who offered an adequate return had no difficulty in "filling the job." Before the war had radically changed conditions, the Wisconsin Country Life Conference published an appeal typical of many being made to Middle Western farmers for recourse to the one sound method of filling labor needs. "The mass of farm hands are realizing that they are to remain wage-earners, and will not become independent farm-owners. This means that the farm hand is no longer willing to endure long hours with no recreation. He wants regular hours, a chance for recreation, a good place to live in, and enough wages to maintain a family according to American standards." The agricultural colleges that teach scientific management all over the country have not neglected the management of farm labor, and with the recent forced changes a return to old standards is impossible. A countryside of well-managed, high-priced farms demands labor that must be well paid if it is not to be drained off to railway and factory.

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A part scarcely less important has been played by the new interstate organization of farm labor. Farming is the greatest of seasonal industries. Of the 6,100,000 people reported by the last census to be engaged in farm labor as differentiated from farming, by far the larger portion are the stationary farm laborers of the towns, villages, and the farms too small to absorb the labor of all living on them. States like Illinois, Wisconsin, and Indiana can almost wholly depend on this supply. Less populous States of equal or greater area, from Texas to North Dakota, must depend upon large bodies of farm laborers who can travel even from the Gulf to the Lake of the Woods with the harvest, and on city-dwelling laborers who catch a train to the country as the harvest opens in their section. Three years ago the first weak steps were taken to see that the moving body of laborers was brought to bear upon the sections which most needed men. This year many State Councils of Defence, where existent, State labor departments or bureaus, or State agricultural departments planned, in conjunction with the Federal Labor and Agricultural Departments, a much more comprehensive correlation of demand and supply. In every township an estimate was to be made of the available hands, the number needed, and the deficit in one locality was to be supplied with the surplus in another or with floating labor. Undoubtedly the various labor offices have been enabled by such devices to supply men more methodically than ever before.

That in a year in which farm acreage was increased and cultivation intensified, in which the number of men in industry perhaps reached a record, and in which, after Europe had called thousands of reservists home, hundreds of thousands went into the American regular army or militia, the farmers should nevertheless promise to pull through without losses by shortage of labor, is highly reassuring. It indicates that what we have been taught to regard as one of the most forbidding national problems may not be so forbidding. Our interpretation of the facts of urban expansion and of census figures, which show that between 1880 and 1910 the percentage in farming of all employed Americans dropped from about 44 to 33, may have been exaggerated. Whether it was so or not, there seem to be forces which can be made to meet the situation.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION

Anonymous. The Empty House. Macmillan. $1.40 net.
Brown, A. Bromley Neighborhood. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Cade, C. T. Dandelions. Knopf. $1.50 net.
Ex-Mill-Girl. Helen of Four Gates. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Kester, P. His Own Country. Bobbs-Merrill. $1.50 net.
Locke, W. J. The Red Planet. Lane. $1.50 net.
Lynn, E. Oliver Hastings, V.C. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Partridge, E. B. Sube Cane. Penn Publishing Co. $1.35 net.
Patience Worth. The Sorry Tale. Edited, with a brief Introduction, by C. S. Yost. Holt. $1.90 net.
Wharton, E. Summer. Appleton. $1.50 net.

MISCELLANEOUS

A Soldier of France to His Mother. Translated by Theodore Stanton. McClurg. $1 net.
Atherton, G. The Living Present. Stokes. $1.50 net.
Beer, G. L. The English-Speaking Peoples. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Butler, H. C. Ancient Architecture in Syria. Division II. Division III: Greek and Latin Inscriptions in Syria. Leyden, Holland: E. J. Brill, Ltd.
Butler, S. Erewhon. A reprint. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Chiero, E. Lists of Personal Names from the Temple School of Nippur. Philadelphia: University Museum.
Collin, C. The War against War and the Enforcement of Peace. Macmillan.
Ditchfield, P. H. The England of Shakespeare. Dutton. $2 net.
Hagedorn, H. You Are the Hope of the World. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Hay, I. The Oppressed English. Doubleday, Page. 50 cents net.
Langdon, S. Sumerian Grammatical Texts. Philadelphia: University Museum.
Langdon, S. Sumerian Liturgical Texts. Philadelphia: University Museum.
Letters of Arthur George Heath, with Memoir by Gilbert Murray. Longmans, Green. $1.25 net.
Mierow, C. C. Hugo De Sancto Victore. Reprinted from Transactions of the American Library Institute.
Nave, O. J. Nave's Handbook on the Army Chaplaincy. Privately printed.
Publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts. Vol. XVIII: Transactions. Boston: Colonial Society of Mass.
Roberts, W. R. Greek Civilization as a Study for the People. Oxford University Press. 40 cents.
Shorey, P. The Assault on Humanism. Atlantic Monthly Co. 60 cents net.
Told in the Huts. The Y. M. C. A. Gift-Book. Stokes.
Vaile, P. A. The New Golf. New edition, revised and enlarged. Dutton. $2 net.
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Peabody, F. G. The Religious Education of an American Citizen. Macmillan. $1.25 net.
Philosophical Essays in Honor of James Edwin Creighton. By Former Students. Macmillan. $2 net.
Reeman, E. H. Do We Need a New Idea of God? Jacobs. $1 net.
Williams, C. D. The Christian Ministry and Social Problems. Macmillan. $1 net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS

Boyce, W. S. Economic and Social History of Chowan County, North Carolina. Longmans, Green.
Copeland, M. T. Business Statistics. Harvard Business Studies. Vol. III. Harvard University Press. $3.75 net.
Debel, N. H. The Veto Power of the Governor of Illinois. Two parts. University of Illinois. 50 cents each.
Franks, T. Q. The Margin of Happiness, the Reward of Thrift. Putnam. $1.50 net.
Hoagland, H. E. Collective Bargaining in the Lithographic Industry. Longmans, Green.
Merk, F. Economic History of Wisconsin during the Civil War Decade. Studies, Vol. I. State Historical Society of Wisconsin.
Newcomer, M. Separation of State and Local Revenues in the U. S. Longmans, Green.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

Buchan, J. The Battle of the Somme. Doran.
Coolidge, A. C. The Origins of the Triple Alliance. Scribner. $1.25 net.
Official Letter Books of W. C. C. Claiborne. Edited by Dunbar Rowland. Vols. I-VI. Jackson, Mississippi: State Department of Archives and History.
Review of Historical Publications Relating to Canada. Edited by G. M. Wrong, H. H. Langdon, and W. S. Wallace. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
Thorpe, E. A Biographical Sketch of Sir Henry Enfield Roscoe. Longmans, Green. $2.50 net.

POETRY

A Scallopshell of Quiet. Longmans, Green. 60 cents.
Beede, A. McG. Toward the Sun. Privately printed.
Braithwaite, W. S. The Poetic Year for 1916: A Critical Anthology. Small, Maynard & Co.
Cannan, M. W. In War Time. Longmans, Green. 90 cents.
Chadwick, K. The Rose of Dawn. Longmans, Green. 36 cents net.
Crawshay-Williams, E. Songs on Service. Longmans, Green. 90 cents.
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Manchester, R. E. A Child's Book of Verses. George Banta Publishing Co. 35 cents.
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Summary of the News

DRAWING for the first of the new armies which the United States is prepared to throw into the fight for civilization took place in Washington on July 20. At the last minute, owing to misunderstandings which had arisen in certain districts, a simpler though more laborious method of drawing was substituted for the one previously arranged. The drawing began at 9:49 in the morning, when Secretary Baker drew out the first number, and ended in the early hours of Saturday morning.

GERMANY'S political crisis appears to have been settled, for the time being, at least, by the appointment of Dr. Michaelis and some vague promises to the liberal elements in the Reichstag. To draw comfort from the Chancellor's statement on Thursday of last week, one must go back to the bombastic utterances of his predecessor at the beginning of the war, and note the difference between them and Michaelis's almost pathetic reliance on the submarine as the sole means of ultimate victory. Both in the Chancellor's speech and in that of Herr Fehrenbach, who moved the Reichstag's peace resolution, there was the same old insistence on a victorious peace, the same old picture of a magnanimous Germany dictating "honorable" terms of peace to a defeated enemy. There was no undertaking, as we point out in our editorial columns, to restore the independence of Belgium; there was no reference to Poland. Instead we find a vague suggestion of arranging terms of peace "by means of understanding and in a spirit of give and take (*Verständigung und Ausgleich*)."

WE can pass over the Chancellor's contemptuous reference to this country, whose intervention he views "without serious concern," as one to which Gen. Pershing may be trusted to supply the inevitable correction. When we come to the matter of domestic reform in Germany we find the Chancellor evading the question on the plea that he has only been in office five days. Broadly speaking, however, he considers desirable Parliamentary coöperation with the Government and also the appointment to Ministerial office of certain representatives of the people; but in the next sentence we discover that this generous concession is only possible "on the assumption that the other side [*the other side* is illuminating] recognizes that the constitutional right of the Imperial administration to conduct our policy must not be narrowed." The Reichstag subsequently passed its peace resolution, which the Chancellor has accepted and "interpreted," by a vote of 214 to 116, and adjourned until September 26. Accounts of the debate, meagre as they are, show that Dr. Michaelis fell considerably short of satisfying the liberal elements by his promises, and it is doubtful whether these will have been entirely placated by the Kaiser's gracious reception of Parliamentary leaders, accounts of which, obviously touched up by the censor, were published in Monday's papers. Mr. Lloyd George took the opportunity afforded by a patriotic meeting at Queen's Hall on July 21 to reply to the Chancellor's speech. The gist of his comment was contained in his assertion that "Europe has not sacrificed millions of her gallant sons to set up a sanctuary for sham."

QUARRELS in the Senate, in the Exports Council, in the Shipping Board have formed milestones during the past week along the uphill road travelled by a peaceful democracy making ready for war. Nevertheless, tangible results have been achieved. Despite the efforts of certain wilful Senators to raise a row over its draft provision, the House bill appropriating $640,000,000 for the aviation service was passed by the Senate on Saturday. On the same day the Senate finally passed the Food bill by a vote of 81 to 6. The way for this important measure is still, however, by no means smooth. The Senate's substitution of a board for a single administrator invites a long wrangle in conference, and the President has made known his vehement dislike of the plan. The country has had fresh illustration of the weaknesses of boards in the renewal of the squabble between Gen. Goethals and Mr. Denman, which continues to hold up the shipbuilding programme so vital to the needs of the Allies and of ourselves. It is possible that the President is in a position to judge of the merits of this dispute. Certainly few other people are, and we content ourselves with putting on record the profound disgust with which the whole sorry business is viewed throughout the country and the fervent hope that by the time this paragraph appears the President may have taken drastic steps to end the brawl. Differences of opinion as to the strictness of the regulation of exports to neutral countries are asserted to have been the reason for Secretary Redfield's demanding the resignation of Dr. Edward E. Pratt as Chief of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Dr. Pratt's resignation was announced on July 17, but no official statement as to the reason for it was made public.

DISCOURAGING news has come from Russia, the chief moral of which appears to be that Germany continues to command in Petrograd an extremely effective propaganda and to use it with great astuteness. It would appear that two distinct sets of troubles synchronized last week. To the German propaganda and the irresponsible anarchists are attributable the Maximalist riots in Petrograd and the disaffection in the army, which has turned a promising offensive into a retreat that holds unpleasant possibility of becoming a rout. Coincidently with these troubles the questions of Ukrainian and Finnish independence leaped into prominence. On the former question five Ministers resigned, and on Friday the resignation of Premier Lvov and the succession to the Premiership of M. Kerensky were announced. Incidentally an attempt to assassinate the latter had been made on the day before he accepted the Premiership. Dispatches on Monday contained the news that the Council of Soldiers' and Workmen's Delegates and Peasants of All Russia had voted to grant Kerensky's Government "unlimited powers" under the title of "Government of National Safety" for the reëstablishment of public order both at the front and at home.

IN view of the rapidity with which events are moving on the Russian front, it is useless to attempt a résumé of operations. The admitted fact is that by the beginning of the week the entire line in Northern Galicia had given way; bodies of troops laid down their arms at the first attack of the Teutons; other bodies professed to have concluded a separate peace with Hindenburg; others, again, on being ordered to reinforce hard-pressed units, spent hours in debate as to whether the order should be obeyed. Operations on the western front have been marked by German assaults of exceptional severity on the Chemin des Dames, all of which the French have repulsed, with only the loss of a position here and there. On the British front there was extraordinary aerial activity last week, which resulted in favor of the British.

SOMETHING in the nature of a submarine scare was caused last week by the publication in the New York *Times* of a dispatch from Charles S. Grasty declaring that the U-boats were sinking 1,600,000 tons of shipping a month. Subsequently it turned out that an extra million tons had been added to Mr. Grasty's figures through an error in transmitting the cable. The official British list for the week ended July 15 recorded the loss of fourteen ships of more and four of less than 1,600 tons. Twelve ships were unsuccessfully attacked. Arrivals were 2,828; sailings, 2,920. Dispatches from London of July 17 announced that British naval forces had captured four German merchant ships and sunk or compelled to run aground several others off the coast of Holland. The vessels are said to have been engaged in carrying coal from Holland to Sweden. The Dutch Government announces that Holland's neutrality was violated by the British ships, and the German press expresses intense indignation at the wickedness of the British in imperilling the lives of the poor seamen.

MINISTERIAL changes of considerable importance in the British Government were announced last week. Sir Edward Carson is succeeded as First Lord of the Admiralty by Sir Eric Geddes, and himself enters the War Cabinet without portfolio. Mr. Churchill replaces Dr. Addison at the Ministry of Munitions, Dr. Addison becoming a Minister without portfolio in charge of reconstruction. Edwin Samuel Montagu becomes Secretary of State for India in the place of Austen Chamberlain, who recently resigned as a result of the disclosures of the Mesopotamian Commission. The changes have been received in England with a good deal of criticism, which is directed particularly at the appointment of Mr. Churchill. In a test vote on Monday, however, the Government received a majority of 199.

GERMAN aeroplanes attacked the east coast of England on Sunday, killing eleven persons and injuring twenty-six at Felixstowe and Harwich. Apparently it was the intention of the squadron to conduct another raid over London, but the British defences seem to have improved, and the raiders were compelled to turn back. One hostile machine was brought down over the sea.

BATTLES long ago, before England had other things to think about than what to do with her militants, were recalled last week by the sentences of sixty days' imprisonment imposed on the suffragists who picketed the White House. The women elected to go to jail in preference to paying a fine, but were released by the intervention of President Wilson on July 19.

SIAM makes the sixteenth nation to join the war against Germany. The existence of a state of war with Germany and Austria was declared on Sunday, and nine steamers, aggregating 19,000 tons, were seized.

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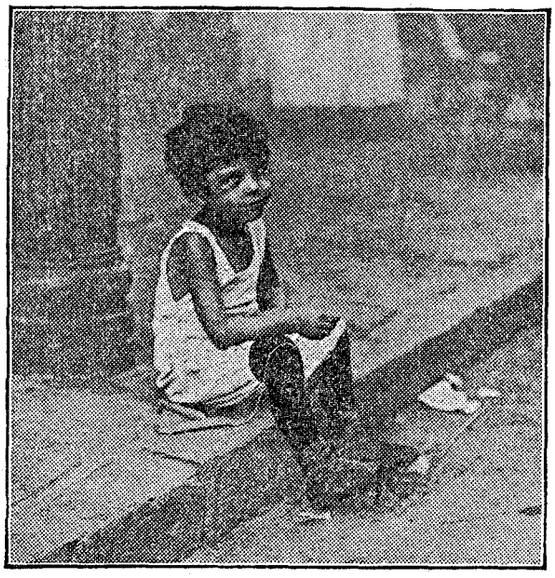

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